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Special Methods in the Modern Language Area: A Report

I. INTRODUCTION

THE report that follows is designed to supplement a report on the Academic and Professional Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers, being essentially a more detailed examination of one specific phase of the latter. A mimeographed version of this report was mailed to instructors who so generously contributed to the original survey; a second, oral version was presented at the Teacher Training Section of the Cincinnati meeting of the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association on April 10, 1953. The present version is printed in the *Modern Language Journal* for whatever value it may have for the profession as a whole.

The author's dissertation,¹ completed in August, 1952, at The Ohio State University under the direction of James B. Tharp, was based upon a survey of a particularly troublesome area in teacher training, called, for want of a better name, "special methods." Questionnaires were sent to 431 instructors of special methods courses in the teaching of modern languages (hereafter to be abbreviated "ML-SM courses"). A 61 per cent return was obtained, indicating considerable interest in the project. The author hoped to determine:

- (1) The number of accredited institutions, which, professing to offer academic and professional training in the teaching of modern languages, provide ML-SM instruction.

- (2) Patterns of organization, content, and procedures in the teaching of ML-SM courses.

- (3) The background of ML-SM instructors.

- (4) Enrollment trends of students taking ML-SM courses.

- (5) Problems and issues, which, when resolved, might indicate standards of effective practice and ways of improving courses.

The study was made on the assumption that ML-SM courses are, though important, greatly misunderstood. It was felt that some need existed to explore the possibilities of ML-SM

instruction, to solicit suggestions from practitioners in the field as to effective practices, and to compile a set of recommendations that might make ML-SM course organization and instruction more effective and less haphazard.

II. OPINIONS AS TO THE VALUE OF ML-SM COURSES

Instructors were not polled as to whether or not they thought ML-SM courses were valuable. Free comments indicated that most instructors were sure of their *potential* values, though various difficulties limited their present effectiveness. A small minority expressed irritation at having to teach the course. Some instructors told of unsympathetic administrators who discontinued the course, partly because of lack of sufficient enrollment, partly because of "waste-of-time" theory. In some cases, the course was never given, even though listed in the institution's bulletin. A few states have eliminated special methods courses as such in state institutions.

The students themselves resoundingly affirm the value of special methods instruction. Studies by Cason,² McGrath,³ and Peik,⁴ for example, all show that ex-students (now teaching) regarded their special-methods courses as surpassed in value *only* by student teaching. General methods courses did not rate nearly so high. The instructors were, in 1929, almost all in favor of keeping the course. Only 1.5 per cent

¹ Joseph V. Thomas, *The Nature and Effectiveness of Special Methods Courses in the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1952.

² Ernest W. Cason, *A Study of the Professional Curriculum for Prospective Secondary-School Teachers of the Academic Subjects at the Ohio State University*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1949, p. 367.

³ G. D. McGrath, "The Case for Methods Courses in Modern Teacher Training," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVIII (November, 1948), pp. 648-55.

⁴ W. E. Peik, *The Professional Education of High School Teachers*. University of Minnesota Press, 1930, p. 80.

of the modern language departments replying to Purin's questionnaire⁵ disapproved of the course.

To the author, the special methods course has certain unique values in teacher training. All too often, the subject-matter and professional phases of a student's training exist side by side without being properly tied together. Special methods, being a blend of the two disciplines, is ideally qualified to perform this coordination. Likewise, there arrives a point in a student's training when he must forsake the absorptive role of student and assume, gradually, it is hoped, the productive role of teacher. Here again, the special methods course is sorely needed to help the student translate the content and theory he has learned into practice.

III. DEFINITION OF SPECIAL METHODS INSTRUCTION

By apparent agreement, methods instruction is divided into "general" and "special." The former is usually considered to be concerned with those phases of teaching application that are common to all teaching, such as lesson planning, use of materials, motivation of pupils, "units," "projects," and "laboratory" techniques, evaluation, etc. The latter is usually understood as ways of adapting a particular body of subject matter (as, for example, communication in French) to a particular group of learners (such as high-school pupils).

The author discovered that the more he studied the nature of ML-SM courses, the harder it was to define them. Instructors were teaching these courses to attain many different objectives. The following are representative:

(1) *Overview of the field* (historical background of the modern-language teaching field; psychology of language learning; contributions of language learning to general education.)

(2) *Development of professional attitudes* (moving from the absorbent role of learner to the responsible and productive role of teacher).

(3) *Pre-student-teaching orientation* (learning ways of overcoming practical problems of teaching before these are met in the classroom.)

(4) *Review of language subject-matter* judged to be especially needed by prospective teachers.

(5) *Development of personality*, regarded by many to be needed more than "method."

(6) *Appraisal of teaching competencies* by observing prospective teachers undergoing active, graded experiences of contact with pupils prior to or during student teaching.

The value of *all* these objectives in the total education of the future teacher can hardly be questioned. It is possible, nevertheless, that the first three listed are as many as a methods course ought to have to maintain proper focus. The last three might more effectively be attained in other courses. *Review of language subject matter and skills*, for example, can be effected in existing conversation and syntax courses, and can be tested for by proficiency examinations before a student reaches the methods course. *Development of personality* is a matter for guidance services, and should be a thread of concern running through *all* courses, rather than an attainable objective in any one of them. *Appraisal of teaching competencies* is a process that draws upon performance throughout a student's teacher-training period and could only narrowly be attained within the confines of a single course.

Further light upon the definition of "special methods in the modern-language area" will be shed, it is hoped, by the data that follow.

IV. ORGANIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

Trends. It is difficult to realize the many different forms in which ML-SM courses can be taught. There are, first of all, single-language courses: courses in the teaching of French, of German, of Spanish, etc. These comprise about half of all ML-SM courses in the United States. They predominate in smaller institutions, and usually have extremely small enrollments (see Section V). Next, there are what we might call "field courses," in which factors common to the teaching of two or more languages compose the content. These have such names as "The Teaching of Romance Languages" (usually French plus Spanish); "The Teaching of Modern Languages" (usually the Romance Languages plus German, or any other modern language); "The Teaching of Foreign Languages" (Latin could

⁵ C. M. Purin, *The Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages*. Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Vol. XIII. The Macmillan Co., 1929.

be included); and lastly "The Teaching of the Language Arts" (with English usually predominating). These courses occur in a little less than 50 per cent of the cases, and draw somewhat larger enrollments, due to the mere fact that they are more general. Paradoxically enough, they predominate in larger institutions like public universities where enrollment is not as much a problem as it is at small institutions.

In addition to these two types of courses, some special methods instruction is handled in such courses as those entitled "The Teaching of High School Subjects," which may encompass, in addition to the languages already mentioned, the rest of the courses taught in the high school program. One last type of instruction might be described as "project study," in which, in the absence of regularly established courses, students undertake "field projects" under the joint guidance of their subject-matter and education instructors. The last two types of instruction are rare; they occur in less than three per cent of the cases.

Instructors' comments in the questionnaire study revealed that "special methods," as they understand the term, is not limited solely to formally established courses. It exists also as "infiltrated content" in many courses in both the language and education departments. Some instructors of syntax courses, for example, noting that most of their students are prospective teachers, point out problems on the learning of certain points of grammar, and recommend certain kinds of presentation, practice, etc. Some supervisors of student teachers, to prevent their supervisees from faltering because of certain weaknesses of method in teaching the subject matter, hold special seminars to discuss problems. Some instructors of such courses as "Secondary School Teaching," to avoid adhering too much to generalities, give their students an opportunity to make lesson plans, sets of objectives, or background studies in their own special areas. These activities must be classified as "special methods," even though they are undertaken in other classes.

Recommendations. In the absence of experimental data pertinent to the relative values of the above-mentioned study arrangements, a few recommendations based upon solicited comments of instructors must suffice at present.

Most instructors agree that single-language courses are more specific, and have the advantage of being composed of a homogeneous group of students, all interested in teaching the same language. On the other hand, these classes are dangerously small at most schools, and are not usually conducive to experiences of sharing interests with teachers of other languages. It is felt that the course on "Teaching High School Subjects" is too general from the point of view of subject-matter specialists, and too narrowly conceived for educationists, who would like more of a "student-centered" than a "subject-centered" approach. The "project" plan and the "infiltrated content" plan are good in that they save time for instructors and make a separate course unnecessary, unsatisfactory in that they cannot provide for certain pre-student-teaching experiences shared with others in the same field (as described in Section VIII). The plan that appears to have the most advantages and the fewest disadvantages is the *field course* ("The Teaching of Modern Languages"), in which students have the opportunity, at some point in the term, to divide into homogeneous groups to discuss problems relating to their own special language.

V. ENROLLMENTS IN ML-SM COURSES

In the author's survey, questionnaires were mailed to institutions which (1) were accredited by a national or regional association, (2) offered high-school certification, and (3) offered a major in at least one modern language. In other words, these were schools in which high-school modern-language teachers could obtain training and certification. Returns showed that, in only 59 per cent of these institutions were ML-SM courses offered. However, an additional calculation of modern-language teacher-training graduates of 1951 showed that 83 per cent of these former students had taken at least one ML-SM course. This figure indicates, as might be expected, an unequal distribution of students among institutions where such training is available.

Field classes proved to be, on the average, about two students larger than single-language classes. The averages were: Field classes—8.2 students; single-language classes—6.8.

VI. DEPARTMENTAL PLACEMENT AND STAFFING

Trends. Departmental boundary lines were blurred when it came to determine in which area (Education or subject-matter) a course was offered. Some courses were listed in both departments. Some field courses had such designations as "Modern Language 301" or "Methods 216." Some instructors belonging to one department taught a course listed in another department. Under the limitations imposed by the vagueness of labels, the study determined somewhat inconclusively that, of the ML-SM courses for which data were available, 52 per cent were offered in subject-matter departments, and 48 per cent in departments of Education.

Instructors' special fields by no means corresponded to the departments in which they taught their courses. Instructors who had specialized in foreign languages and literatures numbered 86 per cent of the total; those in Education, 9 per cent; those in other areas (especially English), 5 per cent.

Problems. On the subject of departmental placement, instructors tend to divide themselves into three groups: (1) those who prefer the ML-SM course to be taught in their own department, regardless of circumstances; (2) those who do not wish to be bothered with the course, and prefer it to be taught in another department; and (3) those who see the need for departmental cooperation in planning for special methods. The attitude of groups (1) and (2) reflects a condition in many schools that is unfavorable for teacher-training, namely, the mutual distrust or isolation existing between the subject-matter and education departments. It need hardly be said that the special-methods course, with its peculiar fusion of professional and subject-matter disciplines, suffers acutely when such a condition exists.

Another problem relative to departmental placement and staffing of ML-SM courses is that, in some schools, there are not enough instructors to teach them, or that those available are only partially qualified.

Recommendations. A suggestion pertaining to the improvement of relations between departments is the establishment of a functioning interdepartmental liaison body, such as a faculty

committee, to establish channels of communication between foreign language and Education departments, and to resolve differences as to policy. If a common ground for understanding can be established, it would seem to make little difference as to the department in which the ML-SM course should be offered.

At Syracuse University, the above problem is minimized by the dual-professorship plan. Special methods, student teaching, and graduate study in the teaching of foreign languages are all in the hands of a staff member who is a full-fledged member of both the departments of Education and modern languages. When coordination is embodied in the person of one man, the chances of interdepartmental friction are greatly reduced.

On the subject of the qualifications of instructors, it would not be amiss to point out here that the best teaching (in the author's opinion) of ML-SM courses was done by language instructors who had had at least a minor in Education at some point in their preparation. The merging of disciplines in the methods course should be reflected, it seems, by at least a modicum of dual-specialization in the background of the instructor.

At small schools, the problem of understaffing has been successfully attacked by cooperative teaching and learning. At one school, various members of the language department pooled ideas and manpower in teaching a general field course. At another school, when a teacher could not find enough time both to teach a methods course and to supervise student teachers, she formed a seminar in which methods students and student teachers met together. The sharing of ideas on the two levels was very stimulating. One methods class at another school was made an "open-house workshop," with city teachers invited to attend and pool ideas for mutual benefit. Lawrence College in Wisconsin has a "special methods core" in the department of Education. Students work upon projects in their own special fields, and use staff members of various departments, including campus-school master-teachers, as resource persons. These "share" plans, reported in the survey, are probably only a few of those actually being used at present to enrich instruction.

VII. RELATION OF SPECIAL METHODS WITH STUDENT TEACHING

Issues. The issue of *sequence* is more important and more puzzling than might at first be realized. A ML-SM course that accompanies student teaching is essentially different from one that precedes it. Likewise, a methods course taught to students who are still in the intermediate or advanced stages of learning their language subject matter will be different from a course taught to students who have completed this phase of their study.

Tied up inextricably with sequence is the question of *coordination* and *integration*. Are learnings in one course more easily associated with those of another if the courses occur at the same time, or if one follows another?

Recommendations. Prevailing practice is to place the special methods course *after* the completion of third-year language training and *before* student teaching, to act as a kind of bridge between content, theory, and practice. However, methods courses that occur simultaneously with student teaching are highly recommended by those who have had experience with them. The real classroom problems of student teaching are brought into the methods class and analyzed against the background of theory.

Two compromise plans that capitalize upon the advantages of having special methods both *precede* and *accompany* student teaching, are the following:

Plan I. Term is divided into three approximately equal segments of four weeks each. *Segment 1:* discussion of practical problems as a preliminary to student teaching. *Segment 2:* student teaching, with evening practicum. *Segment 3:* more general, theoretical discussions of previous experiences, overview of the field, etc.

Plan II. Methods course precedes final student teaching, as in the usual arrangement. However, an additional period of "preliminary" student teaching experiences occurs near the beginning or middle of the methods course, introducing students to real classroom problems, which they discuss with great benefit in the methods course.

Of course, other unreported plans may be just as effective in solving the sequence problem.

VIII. INSTRUCTION OF THE COURSE

Topics. Instructors were asked by the author to indicate the degree to which they emphasized each of a list of topics in their ML-SM course. After all returns had been combined, the topics fell in the following order:

(1) Methods of teaching pronunciation; (2) methods of handling oral drill; (3) modern foreign languages in the curriculum (objectives); (4) methods of teaching reading; (5) analysis and comparative value of various methods; (6) methods of teaching specific grammar topics; (7) methods of helping pupils understand foreign nations and people; (8) audio-visual aids and supplementary materials; (9) personal development (e.g. qualities that made a good teacher); (10) modern languages in our society (general values); (11) Evaluation of various textbooks; (12) meeting individual differences; (13) methods of teaching writing; (14) methods of avoiding translation; (15) methods of teaching literary appreciation; (16) psychology of learning; (17) evaluation of various journals and professional organizations; (18) evaluation of standardized tests and other measurements; (19) methods of teaching about foreign influences in America; (20) current modern foreign language teaching situation (employment, enrollment trends, etc.); (21) history of modern foreign language methodology; (22) study of outstanding modern foreign language programs (Berlitz, Middlebury, ASTP, etc.); (23) methods of teaching through translation; (24) experimentation (work needed in modern foreign language field, research methods, etc.).

It is interesting to compare this list with that of Stuart,⁶ compiled in 1927. *Pronunciation* and *oral drill* were at the head of the list in 1927, just as they were in 1952. *The comparative analysis of various methods* as well as *The place of modern languages in the curriculum* stood high then as well as now. *Choice of textbooks*, which stood third on the list in 1927, slipped to eleventh place in 1952. *Understanding foreign*

⁶ Hugh Stuart, *The Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers for the Secondary Schools in the United States*. Contributions to Education, No. 256. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1927, p. 53.

civilization, eighteenth on the list in 1927, rose to seventh place in 1952. *Ability grouping*, a none-too-close equivalent of *Meeting individual differences*, rose from 23rd to twelfth place. *Objectives of modern language teaching* rose from eleventh place to third. *Translation*, which was so important in 1927 that it was divided into "version" (translation into English) and "theme" (translation into the foreign language), dropped from eleventh and sixth places, respectively, to 23rd. *Use of supplementary materials* occupied a comparable place on both lists—ninth and eighth, respectively, as did *Grammar*—seventh and sixth. *Reading* rose from seventh to fourth place. *History of modern language methodology* stood low on both lists.

Experiences. In the methods classes studied by the author, the following four definite experience-patterns emerged:

V-pattern: Exclusive use of *verbal* learnings. Instructor gives lectures on all phases of the field, including specific classroom problems; students listen, take notes, read assignments in textbooks and library.

VO-pattern: *Verbal* plus *observational* learnings. Instructor does not lecture quite so much, illustrates specific techniques by demonstration. Demonstrations may be made with actual high school classes, or merely in front of the methods class. Students watch, discuss what they have seen, ask questions. The instructor may even teach the students a language they do not know in a "capsule" form, then discuss with them what they learned and how they learned it.

VP-pattern: *Verbal* learnings plus *project* undertakings. Although this pattern may be marked by a certain amount of listening and observing, it is characterized chiefly by student activity of the "project" type—writing lesson plans, building resource units, collecting materials, writing research papers, etc. General background topics are discussed by the instructor with the class.

VT-pattern: *Verbal* learnings plus *trial-teaching* experiences. A class of this type is different from any of the others in that students have opportunities to practice active teaching skills. In many cases, students plan a sample lesson, then practice presenting it to the other students in the methods class. The latter then

discuss and evaluate the effectiveness of the lesson. Students may also visit actual high school classes, where they undertake tasks of teaching of various degrees of responsibility.

Although verbal experience is common to all of the patterns just described, the V-pattern (verbal experience exclusively) comprises only ten per cent of the total. The majority of instructors seem to agree that talking and reading *only* is not enough. They insist that students need to see and hear how classroom procedures work in actual practice. In addition, students need actual practice in planning lessons, assembling materials, making tests and writing papers. Even more, they need to see how it feels to present actual lessons in the role of a teacher. The VT-pattern, in which students have at least *one* opportunity to participate actively in a teaching experience, exists in about 50 per cent of the classes.

The use of outside resources was comparatively neglected. *Observations* of high school classrooms were included in only 37 per cent of the ML-SM classes. *Participations* (pre-student-teaching experiences in which students, serving as teacher assistants, help grade papers, correct board work, drill with remedial groups, etc.) were available in only 13 per cent of the classes.

Recommendations. The specific topics to be taught in a course depend, of course, upon the individual instructor and the needs of his students. The suggestions to be offered here pertain to *method*, and are presented as they apply to the various recommended purposes of ML-SM study:

Purpose I. Overview of the field. Readings done with the object of attempting to find personal answers to issues are preferable to uniform reading assignments with the object of learning uniform facts. Some lectures and textbook reading on minimum essentials are desirable, but should not be overdone. Field trips and guest speakers should be utilized more often. "Propaganda" on method should be avoided.

Purpose II. Development of professional attitudes. Fitting the student to contribute to the field of foreign-language teaching is a long step in this direction. Students might be given practice in writing professional articles based upon their own readings and experience in the class-

room. The meaning of research and scientific methods should be appreciated, if not actually practiced and used. Frequent contacts with professional organizations and publications is urged, with active membership strongly recommended for students.

Purpose III. Pre-student-teaching orientation. The course should provide students with a preview of language teaching problems. It is here that the instructor can draw upon his own teaching experience, and provide students with ideas that cannot be found in textbooks. The more vivid this instruction, the better. The instructor should make rich use of *demonstration*, on the principle that the multi-sensory approach has a greater advantage in communicating an understanding of a given concept than a purely verbal approach. Next, the student must be given abundant opportunity to practice the skills he must learn to use in actual teaching. This will involve not only classroom presentation of language units, but lesson-, unit-, and course-planning. An effective technique in the former case would be *trial-teaching* before other members of the methods class, supplemented by mutual suggestion and criticism; in the latter case, *self-initiated projects*, supplemented by study of representative learning materials. *Participation* as teacher-assistant in actual high-school class rooms is highly recom-

mended as a way of acquainting students with the operations of the class room and the nature of high-school pupils, which could be adequately learned in no other way.

IX. CONCLUSION

The study reported here is incomplete in many respects. For an adequate understanding of the role of special methods instruction in teacher-training, further studies are needed, in such areas as the opinions and evaluations of former students, or intensive, on-the-spot evaluation of the performance of student teachers after taking various kinds of methods courses. It would be valuable to make further study of various institutions in which substitute plans for special-methods instruction are in effect—such plans as “infiltrated content,” “professionalized subject-matter,” “field projects,” “individualized study,” etc.

Two keys to the improvement of courses are proposed: cooperation and flexibility. There is a need for departmental differences to be forgotten and for understandings to be strengthened. And there is a need for all of us to be receptive to new ideas and to be adventurous in trying them out.

JOSEPH V. THOMAS

*Austin Peay State College
Clarksville, Tenn.*

ANNOUNCEMENT

The Central States Modern Language Teachers Association is pleased to announce that the United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. Samuel Brownell, will address the Association at the first spring meeting of the Association to be held at Purdue University, April 15-16, 1955. Commissioner Brownell will speak at the general session, April 16.

NOTICE

We urge our readers to send to the Modern Language Association, 6 Washington Square North, any information of interest concerning the teaching of foreign languages in our schools and colleges.

The Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese at the U. S. Naval Academy

I SHOULD like to express my gratitude to the directors of this conference and to our hosts, the University of Kentucky, for their kind invitation enabling me to participate in it.* The U. S. Naval Academy appreciates this opportunity, for despite the active and practical language programs followed by our nation's military institutions, these efforts are not widely known. This is due largely to the fact that these schools are very often not included in general studies of educational institutions. Perhaps this talk will help dispel some of the common misconceptions concerning the curriculum and the teaching methods of our military schools. It is based on my teaching experience at the Naval Academy. The foreign language program of our sister institution the U. S. Military Academy, with whom we share a mutual interest, was covered in a talk given this morning by Colonel Walter J. Renfro, Jr.

The general theme, "Making America Foreign Language Conscious," is well selected for it is not only a timely expression of a pressing problem, but even more, of a challenge and duty which it behooves every language teacher to consider seriously. I am happy to say that from their beginnings our military institutions have been cognizant of the necessity of the study of foreign languages, realizing their value to the individual, to the military service itself, and to the country in general. Some persons may be surprised to find out that our military schools have not only been foreign language conscious for many years, but to an extent not seen even in some of our liberal arts colleges.

This paper will be devoted to a discussion of the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese at the Naval Academy, but the same general pattern is also characteristic of the other languages taught there, namely, French, German, Russian, and Italian. It will be directed towards

answering several questions about our program: *Why? By whom? How? With what results?*

Why? The first interrogative may be divided into two parts: *Why language?* and *Why Spanish and Portuguese?*

First of all it must be made clear that a naval officer is more than a pilot, more than a sailor, and his education cannot be limited to the so-called professional subjects. The U. S. Naval Academy is not a mere trade or vocational school. It is an institution of learning on the college level and has always aimed at giving much more than a naval training. As early as 1775 the immortal John Paul Jones, whose remains now rest in the crypt of the Academy's chapel, said in a letter to the Naval Committee of Congress: "It is by no means enough that an officer of the navy should be a capable mariner. He must be that, of course, but also a great deal more. He should be as well a gentleman of liberal education, refined manners, punctilious courtesy, and the nicest sense of personal honor."¹

Throughout the years the Naval Academy's curriculum has shown a similar respect for the value of a broad background and today the social-humanistic subjects, such as English, History, Government, Speech, Foreign Languages, Psychology and Leadership, take up about one-fourth of the total recitation hours. This is in keeping with the Academy's mission:

Through study and practical instruction to provide the midshipmen with a basic education and knowledge of the naval profession; to develop them morally, mentally, and physically; and by precept and example to indoctrinate them with the highest ideals of duty, honor, and loyalty; in order that the Naval Service may be provided with graduates who are capable junior officers in whom have been de-

* A paper read at the Sixth University of Kentucky Foreign Language Conference, Lexington, Kentucky, April 23-25, 1953.

¹ Letter of September 14, 1775, quoted in *Naval Phraseology* (U. S. Naval Institute, Annapolis, 1953), p. 82.

veloped the capacity and foundation for future development in mind and character leading toward a readiness to assume the highest responsibilities of citizenship and government.³

In addition to their commissions as officers, graduates receive the degree of Bachelor of Science, and the Academy is accredited by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The general value of languages and their place in any truly liberal education is one which has been recognized by reputable college and university authorities. Although it is true that in the last few years some schools have lowered language requirements, there has also been noted a vigorous and wholesome reaction which has not only emphasized the need of more and better language instruction in higher education, but in some cases has also advocated extending this training to the elementary school. There has been felt the inspiration afforded by the energetic leadership of the former U. S. Commissioner of Education, Earl J. McGrath, who in an address given last year stressed the "co-gent psychological, social, pedagogical, and national reasons for intensifying and increasing the scope of language instruction in the American school system."⁴ To this must be added the re-vitalized leadership and action of the Modern Language Association which is now making a complete study of the problem. A group of educators representing some of our finest preparatory schools and universities recently studied curriculums and methods and in its report emphasized the need of a thorough study of at least one foreign language. It stated: "It is time, in our view, to call a halt to this retreat toward monolingual isolationism."⁵

The Navy has always recognized the value of languages. In his letter John Paul Jones indicated that a naval officer should be able to write and to speak them. Today, the increased inter-dependence of countries and the accentuated efforts toward a community of nations, the predominant role of the United States in foreign affairs as shown by our part in such undertakings as the United Nations and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, to name but two, have stressed the importance of language training for communication purposes and also for a proper understanding of other peoples.

In their defense of languages many proponents shy away from stressing national "interests," as if such claims were tainted. Yet one must be practical and realistic, which is not necessarily exactly the same as being selfish. In the world today interests are mutual, and not only defense but also living conditions and general welfare depend to a great extent on relations with other countries. Although a neutral in the last war, Portugal's interests were sufficiently clear as to lead her to sanction our use of the Azores as a valuable stopover on flights to Europe. If we are interested in the defense of the Iberian peninsula, so are Spain and Portugal who have joined us in considering this problem. If an enemy in any of the Americas would pose a threat to our security, it would certainly not leave the other countries snug in a bed of roses. These factors, the strategic importance of the Panama Canal and the approaches to it as well as of routes around South America were it to be closed, give further import to the countries to the south of us and to their languages. Nelson A. Rockefeller, formerly Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, said that Spanish or Portuguese should become a second language on our continent.⁶ That the gain rendered by our assistance to these areas is not all one-sided may be seen in the fact that the great development projects undertaken have brought them increased production and a higher standard of living. To give but one example, with our help Venezuela has reached a position second only to that of the United States in the production of oil and produces more than the combined total of the world's next two producers, Soviet Russia and Iran. President Eisenhower, in an address given April 12 before the Organization of American States meeting at the Pan American Union

³ Pamphlet, *United States Naval Academy. Curriculum, 1952-1953* (Annapolis, 1952).

⁴ "Language Study and World Affairs," an address given in St. Louis, May 3, 1952, before the Central States Modern Language Association, *Modern Language Journal*, XXXVI (1952), 207.

⁵ *General Education in School and College* (Cambridge Massachusetts, 1952), p. 48.

⁶ In an address given at the University of Michigan, July, 1941, quoted in part by Henry Grattan Doyle, "Effective Inter-American Cooperation," *Hispania*, XXV (1942), 176.

Building, spoke of the need of solidarity in the Americas and said he would send his brother, Dr. Milton Eisenhower, president of Pennsylvania State College, to Latin America to prepare a report on ways of strengthening hemispheric economic and social bonds.

It hardly seems necessary to say much more to defend the place of Spanish, the most popular foreign language. At the Academy it forms the largest language group, comprising in recent years about forty per cent of the total enrollment, with its peak having been about one thousand.

The problem of Portuguese needs more explanation, for despite the fact that over sixty million people speak this language it has been much neglected in our country. Jacob Ornstein,⁶ Norman P. Sacks⁷ and others have pointed out the sad plight of Portuguese instruction. The Brazilian Minister Plenipotentiary, Afrânio de Mello Franco, said that the most important task of his embassy was not the drafting of treaties nor attendance at diplomatic conferences, but rather to try to interest our young people in the language and history of Brazil.⁸ He pointed out the ironic fact that one of our leading universities has a Portuguese library of some fifty thousand volumes but has fewer than a dozen students of Portuguese. Some schools, as the University of California at Los Angeles, the University of New Mexico, the University of North Carolina, Stanford, Vanderbilt, the University of Wisconsin and a few others have promoted Portuguese studies, but very much still remains to be done. The U. S. Military Academy and the Naval Academy have relatively high enrollments in this language, the latter's total of from 100 to 220 a year having led the field in some past years.

Brazil is one of our best neighbors and has not only indicated her interest in American aims but has translated it into action. She was one of the few American nations to send troops in both World Wars to fight on the side of freedom. Nor must we forget the valuable contributions in minerals and strategic materials which came from her almost limitless resources. During the last war our armed services also made good use of her ports and airfields. It is not generally known that Brazil is the world's largest republic, for its area is greater than that

of the United States. São Paulo is the fastest growing large city in the world. That our interests and those of Brazil are mutual may be seen in the significant fact that United States trade with Brazil as indicated by exports and imports is over one billion dollars, greater than our trade with any other nation in the world with the exception of Canada! Facts may be somewhat blunt and uninteresting in themselves but as one writer put it, they are very stubborn things. Yes, there are great "interests," and there is nothing wrong in admitting that this is the case. What would be inexcusable would be for us to limit our perspective to merely material gains and to lose sight of the rights of these countries by showing no regard for them, their people, or their language. In our anxiety over the problems posed in Europe and Asia, legitimate though it may be, we must not only not forget our neighbors, but we should show an appreciation of their role, by welcoming their cooperation and by treating them with the respect they deserve.

The next question to be answered about our instruction is: *By whom?* One of the general misconceptions is the belief that all the teaching at the Naval Academy is done by men in uniform. It is true that some subjects, as seamanship and navigation, ordnance and gunnery, for example, are taught almost exclusively by officers. However, this is not true in the social-humanistic field, where the instruction is handled primarily by qualified and trained civilians. At the present time there are twelve civilian instructors and three officers teaching Spanish as their main language and four civilians and one officer teaching it as their minor subject. Two of these officers are college language teachers now serving on active duty. All of the Portuguese instruction is handled by civilians, most of it by three instructors. Since most of the work is limited to the first two years of language, the main emphasis is on obtaining good teachers rather than scholars or good research men, although faculty members are encouraged to participate in professional confer-

⁶ "Facts, Figures, and Opinions on the Present Status of Portuguese," *Hispania*, XXXIII (1950), 251-55.

⁷ "The Problem of Portuguese Enrollment," *Hispania*, XXXIV (1951), 285-88.

⁸ Reported in *Visión*, February 5, 1952.

ences, to do research, write textbooks, and to make other contributions to the language field. The Ph.D. degree is not required, except for promotion to the rank of full professor, and in the past men without the degree have often been selected over men with it. Instructors are encouraged to spend their free time maintaining their proficiency in the language they teach and in keeping abreast of conditions in the countries where it is spoken. The Navy Department cooperates by making possible travel and study abroad, and practically all the members of the teaching staff of the Department of Foreign Languages have spent periods of time in foreign countries. Some of the men have been very active in improving teaching methods and in the writing of textbooks.⁹ The main dedication, however, is to the practical teaching of language and to the related activities which make it lively and interesting.

How? The language program at the Naval Academy has two main aims: (1) a practical objective which stresses ability to use the language; (2) a cultural objective which emphasizes information about the area, and about the people who speak the language.¹⁰ The course covers two years, each divided into two seventeen-week terms of classes. These meet an average of three hours a week.

The first-year course does not vary greatly from the average beginning college course except that classes are small, about thirteen to a section, and that correct pronunciation and oral work, especially efforts to get the students to use the language, are stressed heavily from the very beginning. Special pronunciation pamphlets prepared by the Spanish and Portuguese divisions provide an introduction to the language. A series of recordings which cover basic sounds, word grouping, and much of the first term's work, with pauses for repetition and imitation, are also used. These and practice tapes are made available to the midshipmen at no cost to them. Lesson helps and other aids are resorted to in an endeavor to make the most of the recitation period, for the midshipmen have only one hour of preparation for each class. Extra instruction is provided for those students who need assistance. In Spanish those students who already have some knowledge of the language and who are qualified as shown

by examination may be put in advanced sections where they start with the second-year course.

In the second year the classes meet two hours a week for nine weeks and three hours a week after that. The materials used treat of the area and of the general culture of the people who speak the language studied and also include samples of their literature. This is not translated but rather discussed, for the course is conducted in Spanish or Portuguese, as the case may be. There is some writing of sentences and of compositions which serves to review principles of grammar and to promote greater accuracy in expression. The last ten recitations of the course are devoted to a study and use of *Naval Phraseology*, a book in six languages prepared by the Department of Foreign Languages. The student gets practical experience acting as interpreter in situations similar to those in which he may find himself some day in his career as a naval officer. Furthermore, he is acquainted with technical and up-to-date vocabulary and expressions in the language he is studying. For the advanced Spanish group there is the equivalent of a third-year course where the students discuss the material and ideas contained in, as well as the thoughts stimulated by such books as Cervantes' *Don Quixote*, Ángel del Río's *Del solar hispánico*, and Américo Castro's *Iberoamérica*.

Although language classes are held only during the first two years, the midshipmen may keep in contact with their language all four years they are at the Academy. The Spanish and Portuguese Clubs are very active, providing a variety of programs with movies, slides, music, songs, quiz programs, picnics, and other activities in which the midshipmen use the foreign language. Books, recorded language courses and tapes are available to those interested, and

⁹ Ángel Cabrillo-Vázquez, *Trozos escogidos* (with Cecil Knight Jones and Henry Grattan Doyle); Alden R. Heffer, *Trafalgar* and *Primeras lecturas* (both with Ramón Espinosa), *Risas y sonrisas* and *A Handbook of Comparative Grammar* (both with Richard E. Chandler); George E. Starnes and Oscar Fernández, *¿De qué hablamos?*; George E. Starnes *¿Qué quiere decir?* (with Herbert A. Van Scoy).

¹⁰ Homer B. Winchell, "The Twofold Objective in the Modern Language Program of the U. S. Naval Academy," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIII (1949), 445-49.

foreign newspapers and magazines are distributed. The Spanish Club has sponsored dancing instruction in Spanish and Spanish-American dance steps, and the Portuguese Club has published its own little Portuguese newspaper. Some of the students maintain a regular correspondence with pen pals in other countries. The clubs also sponsor full-length foreign movies and in recent years the Spanish group has presented "Guadalajara," "Don Quijote," "La locura de amor," "El sombrero de tres picos," and others. The Portuguese films shown have been "Aldéia branca," "Capas negras," and "O Fado."

The great enthusiasm and interest manifest in these clubs may be seen in the fact that although they must compete with many other clubs and activities at the Academy and although they meet during the already too-limited study time, the combined total shows that over five hundred midshipmen belong to these two clubs. Last year the midshipmen of the combined language clubs conceived, planned, and carried out a Foreign Language Dance which was a great success. Among the refreshment stands were a Spanish Casa Blanca and a Portuguese coffee house.

One of the most valuable of the extra-curricular activities is after-dinner speaking which takes place at a series of formal dinners held during the year. The foreign language is spoken at the table and several midshipmen give prepared speeches on a variety of subjects. Usually foreign guests are present and address the students. Naval officers and diplomatic officials from many Latin American countries, and other notables as Abreu Gómez and Tavares de Sá, have attended. Many of these men have reacted enthusiastically and some of them have been most generous. Dr. Escorel de Morães of the Brazilian Embassy contributed books on the literature and history of Brazil, and Commander Antônio M. Belo, the Portuguese Naval Attaché, donated a fine selection of Portuguese books. After his visit, the Portuguese Ambassador Dr. Theotônio Pereira invited the midshipmen to the Portuguese Embassy in Washington where they were treated to a buffet supper of Portuguese food and entertained with a musical program. On another occasion Portuguese instructors were permitted

to take some of their outstanding students to the Luso-Brazilian Colloquium sponsored by Vanderbilt University and the Library of Congress. There the midshipmen met and conversed with leaders in the field of Portuguese studies, not only of the United States but also from Portugal, Brazil, England, and other parts of the world. These contacts proved stimulating to the midshipmen, who in turn made a favorable impression on the foreign visitors. Administrative officials of the Academy, officers carefully selected for what is considered one of the Navy's most important duties, show an appreciation of the important role of foreign languages and render valuable assistance by encouraging language activities. The present superintendent is Vice Admiral Turner M. Joy who was in charge of the first truce talks at Panmunjom in Korea.

Every occasion is taken to put the language studied to practical use. At times midshipmen escort visiting foreign guests. On the occasion of the visits of the Spanish "Juan Sebastián de Elcano" and the Brazilian "Almirante Saldanha," both naval training ships, Spanish and Portuguese students served as hosts. Summer cruises to foreign ports, for example this year to Brazil, give the students an excellent opportunity to speak the language and enjoy the benefits it brings them.

The last question to be answered is: *With what results?* We feel that the results of our program are good. All of the students receive a background and training in the language studied. In most cases they have acquired a satisfactory oral facility and the better men have a commendable fluency and proficiency. Those who take the advanced Spanish course and those who do sufficiently well in the regular second-year Spanish and Portuguese courses are designated as translators in these languages. Those who pass a practical oral examination given two years after they have completed their study of the language, are given the rating of interpreter. This year about 150 were qualified as translators in Spanish and 25 of these took and passed the examination as interpreters. In Portuguese, where the enrollment is much less, there were 12 translators and 5 of these took the oral test and qualified as interpreters. Letters received from graduates attest to the

practical and effective use they have made of their language training. In recent years one Spanish and two Portuguese students have been awarded Rhodes scholarships. One of the latter told me of his plans to study Spanish and French while in England and then to visit France and Spain, as well as Portugal.

In summary, in the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese at the U. S. Naval Academy, as of French, German, Russian, and Italian, the policy has been to provide the midshipmen with a thorough training and practice in the use of the language itself, with some study of the areas, and of the people who speak it. Whether the naval officer in the future finds himself a negotiator with representatives of

other nations, naval attaché in a foreign country, interpreter in a particular situation, a visitor abroad, or merely engaged in a conversation with a foreigner, it is believed that he will have benefited from his two years of language. Regardless of how much or how little he retains of the language itself, his training in it should have given him a better understanding of foreign peoples and an insight as to how to deal with them. In the last analysis, proper training is conducive to good results and to good fortune, for as the saying goes, "the winds and waves are always on the side of the ablest navigators."

OSCAR FERNÁNDEZ

U. S. Naval Academy

NOTICE

CENTRAL STATES MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

The Association will have a dual session in 1955. The first meeting will be held at Purdue University, April 15-16, and the second, in Minneapolis, Minnesota, May 6-7, with headquarters in the Hotel Leamington, Minneapolis. Dr. Emma Marie Birkmaier, University of Minnesota, the new president of the Association, is in charge of the Minneapolis meeting.

The following are the section chairmen for the Minneapolis meeting:

French—*Chairman*, Professor Harold M. Davidson, Hillsdale College, Hillsdale, Michigan;

German—*Chairman*, Professor William Dehorn, Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin;

Spanish-Portuguese—*Chairman*, Professor Peter F. Smith, Jr., Beloit College, Beloit, Wisconsin;

Teacher-Training—*Chairman*, Professor Walter Patterson, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Those wishing to read papers at this meeting are urged to write to the proper chairman as early as possible.

Language Teaching in the Soviet Union

DURING the summer of 1954, my wife and I visited her brother in the American Embassy in Moscow. Being a teacher, I was naturally anxious to find out as much as I could about methods of instruction behind the Iron Curtain.

My efforts to pursue the investigation of this subject repeated the experience of other non-Russians who have recounted the difficulties of establishing contact with Soviet citizens engaged in cultural activities. In Leningrad, "Intourist," the official Soviet tourist agency, explained that school teachers and university professors were all on vacation and that consequently it would be impossible to arrange a meeting. When I was at the American Embassy in Moscow, "Intourist" disclaimed any responsibility for arranging such an interview, although that agency did help me in another matter. The appropriate agency of the Ministry of Education was quite discouraging, citing the vacation as a major obstacle among others. The matter stood in abeyance while we were taking a trip down into the Ukraine and the Crimea. In the quite attractive city of Kiev, I walked into the university and asked a member of the staff if he would be good enough to take me to one of the professors of French, which is my subject. This gentleman made a very real effort to find one for me, but entrance examinations had been held that morning, and the professors were home during the afternoon correcting. I did manage to speak in French with a student. It was unfortunate that the courtesy shown me by the university staff member could not have resulted in a meeting with a Russian colleague. I feel sure that had I been at the university in the morning, I should have succeeded in meeting one. It was suggested that I return next morning, but this was our last day in Kiev.

Returning from Yalta to Moscow, I found that the Ministry of Education was still discouraging, but, to my surprise, an interview was arranged a day or two before our departure. I met a certain Miss Chietlin, head of the Divi-

sion of Research of the Pedagogical Institute in Moscow. She was unable to discuss with me literature courses in the detail that I might have wished, but she was most helpful in giving me a picture of the teaching of languages in the Soviet Union, this subject being her specialty. It is to this long conversation with her and to conversations with students and former students of the universities of Leningrad, Moscow and Kiev that I am indebted in writing this article.

In the schools, Soviet pupils start the study of a foreign language at the age of twelve, this age therefore making the Soviet practice closer to the European than to the American. The languages studied are, in order of preference, English, German and French. The number of pupils in a class is on the average forty. The method of teaching is not uniform. The debate that rages so often in the United States with regard to the respective merits of the oral and reading methods is a much heard one in Russia. Teachers take sides according to what they may consider to be the primary goal of language teaching. There are two theories. The first aims at the development of comprehension of the foreign language, especially the written language. The second aims at a development of the ability to speak the language. In schools where the first theory is practiced, reading and translation form the core of the course. Russian is used as the chief vehicle of instruction throughout the five years of study. On the other hand, in schools where the second theory is in practice, the emphasis is on oral work, and the foreign language may be used exclusively, beginning anywhere from the first day of instruction to the third year. In a quite recent experiment, one or two schools have initiated the use of a foreign language as the vehicle for instruction in courses other than the language courses themselves.

Of the two theories of language teaching goals, the first is more firmly established as a tradition in the Soviet Union just as it has been

in this country. The second must overcome the difficulty of appearing as something of an upstart. The first also has the advantage of corresponding more realistically to the Soviet citizen's position as a potential traveler. Russians will deny, as indeed Miss Chietlin did, that their government restricts their travel. With respect to officially sponsored groups, her view could be valid. However, individuals in a group can, with studied enterprise, avoid speaking the language of the country being visited almost completely. Such a person will not miss the opportunities that a course emphasising oral work might have afforded. It is the citizen who sets out alone or with his family who will have a very practical need of the spoken language in the foreign country that he visits. He would certainly want to have had oral training and would lament having had to be in classes numbering forty pupils. The fact is that the private Soviet citizen is not free to go wherever he likes, whenever he likes. Anyone who has seen countries both sides of the Iron Curtain must applaud this realistic policy on the part of a government which refrains from inviting unflattering comparisons. It is a policy which must be taken into account in any attempt to predict the future of the two theories mentioned above. At the present time the Soviet student can not in the foreseeable future contemplate the real need of a fluency in foreign languages.

Yet teachers are teachers everywhere. We are all ever seeking to improve our methods of instruction. Scholarly publications and the ideas in them cross international boundaries. Russians, in fact, are keenly interested in American methods of education and read what they can on the subject. It is the American emphasis on the practical that appeals to Soviet pedagogists. Some language teachers in Russia recognize that, in theory, there is a basic frustration about exposing students to a foreign language for three years or more only to find that at the end of that time they are no more advanced in the matter of speaking the language than they were at the beginning. Such teachers are drawn to the oral method, but they are working against considerable odds.

It is of interest to record that even in grammar books, Soviet ideology can find a vehicle of expression. It is not uncommon to find the il-

lustration of a grammatical point contained in a sentence that comments on some phase of life in the U.S.S.R. We may find such sentences as these in a short grammar of the French language: "Nous aimons notre Patrie socialiste;" "Les travailleurs soviétiques accomplissent avec succès le plan de cinq ans;" "L'Armée soviétique a sauvé les travailleurs du monde entier;" "Les enfants soviétiques deviendront de bons citoyens."¹

In the universities, the course is a five year one. Every student must have at least three years of a foreign language in the university. The normal choice is from English, German or French and in that order of preference, German being a good second and French a somewhat weak third. Language majors have a wider choice than just these three, and they take a second foreign language as a minor. The methods of instruction are even more conservative than in the schools in that reading and grammar are used almost to the exclusion of oral work as the approach to the language except in certain courses likely to be taken by majors. The development of oral fluency is a last consideration. I found in conversations with students and ex-students that those who had taken only the minimum requirements were at about the same level of incapacity as American students with the same amount of study. However, those who had majored in a foreign language seemed generally to be more fluent than American majors.

As for literature courses, a study by century is still popular, although "Great Authors" courses are also given. The lectures are usually in the language of the literature concerned. There is no reason to believe that the major in a foreign literature is inadequately trained. And this is a good thing, for once he leaves the shelves of the university library he will find those of the book shops tragically empty of world literature.

The post-graduate course leading to a teaching career is one of three years. The foreign language student, as others, will be expected to take courses in pedagogy, and this is almost sure to be Soviet pedagogy.

Before closing, a word or two about Soviet

¹ B. Tsielin, *Short Grammatical Explanation of the French Language* (Moscow, 1950), pp. 1, 44.

teachers. Language teachers seem to be accomplishing creditably the goals that have been set. Due to the present emphasis on reading and grammar, the dearth of native teachers of foreign languages is not yet a problem. If circumstances some day bring about a general shift in emphasis to the oral method, pronunciation must suffer. Too many generations will have passed on the peculiarities of certain Russian sounds without the corrective influence of native teachers. The great device of imitation will have lost its efficacy. It is true that the phonetic nature of the Russian language should help Soviet teachers in the use of phonetic symbols in language teaching. However, it is this writer's belief, based on the hearing of a good deal of English and French spoken in the Soviet Union, that a lengthy isolation from native sounds actually articulated and not merely represented by a dead phonetic table will have a lasting and adverse affect on pronunciation in that country. What sort of a pronunciation can one expect of a teacher of, let us say, French who has been taught by another Russian who himself may never have heard a Frenchman speak? This will be a serious problem some day if there is a real cultural exchange between the Russian people and the rest of the world.

Teachers in Russia have many of the difficulties familiar to us in the United States, whatever the field. There were a couple of indications of this fact during the summer of 1954. In one instance, teachers appealed to the Ministry of Education for relief from compulsory attendance at meetings where such endless topics as methods and aims were discussed. In the other case, teachers asked that the number of examinations be reduced so that some of the time now devoted to correcting could be employed otherwise.

Finally, it is interesting to record that Soviet propaganda, in its search for vulnerable spots in the American way of life, aims from time to time at the teaching profession in the United States. On page 4 of the August 1 issue of *Pravda*, there is an article recounting the American teacher's necessity to supplement his income. The article is accompanied by pictures of two American teachers in class and at their extra jobs; one is a bar-tender and the other a gas-station attendant. It should be stated as a point of fact that teacher salaries in the Soviet Union are believed by objective observers to compare favorably with those in the United States.

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*The Organization of the Foreign Language Program at the State Level**

IN MAY 1953, the Modern language Association of America issued a bulletin including as complete a list as possible of the organizations to which modern foreign language teachers belong and to which they presumably pay their annual dues. This list is incredibly long and bewildering. If we could be saved by a sheer number of organizations, I feel sure we could dismiss any future worries from our minds. Unfortunately, the number and diversity of such professional societies lead also to a further possible conclusion: namely, that we have scattered our efforts into a wide variety of organizations which were never designed to meet some of our current needs.

In order to make my remarks brief, let me begin by summarizing a few points which may find rather general agreement.

Within the university and college communities, we tend to see the foreign language problem as one which can be solved by our own faculties. We fight our own campus battles, being grateful, of course, for any support we may receive from the outside. We tend all too often to forget that some of the most critical situations facing us as a profession are largely out of our hands. In the American public schools, the first twelve grades are almost completely controlled by state departments of education working very closely with teacher training institutions—what Professor Arthur E. Bestor has recently called an “Interlocking Directorate.” I believe it will be rather generally conceded that foreign languages have not found their greatest friends among members of this “Directorate.” And yet the problems with which we contend on the college level are greatly accentuated when foreign language study is eliminated from secondary education or greatly neglected.

The Modern Language Association of America in sponsoring the present Foreign Language Program is faced with two very real and practi-

cal difficulties. Its membership is drawn almost exclusively from colleges and universities and it is not organized to deal effectively with the problems arising in the public school systems of individual states. From the very beginning, it has seen the necessity of relying upon regional organizations to further its program.

The South Atlantic Modern Language Association and other such organizations elsewhere in this country have much the same difficulties as the Modern Language Association of America. As of November 2, 1953, there were only about twenty-two members of the SAMLA who teach in high schools. The SAMLA is primarily, at the present time, an organization of college and university teachers. Neither our national association nor our regional association is in a good position to reach the thousands of foreign language teachers in the high schools. Neither organization is in a good position to work with these teachers as they face unsympathetic school superintendents and hostile student councilors. Neither organization can plead its case before the state officials who determine teacher certification, salary increases, school evaluation programs, policies of curriculum, and the many matters of concern to high school teachers of modern foreign languages.

We do have, of course, language associations on the state level. For instance, I suppose, in almost every state there is a chapter of the American Association of Teachers of French. In most states, there is a chapter also of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese. These associations have done excellent work in bringing together high school and college teachers; but the active membership is often small, the activities reduced to one or two meetings a year, and the program not primarily designed to deal with the general situa-

* This paper was read at the General Session of the South Atlantic Modern Language Association, Chattanooga, Tennessee, November 26, 1953.

tion confronting the profession as a whole. Above all, neither the AATF nor the AATSP can speak for *all* the language teachers of a state. The division into professional groups devoted to a particular language tends to divide strength and to prevent us from achieving a united front when we have a common program to support. Many language teachers in high school and college teach more than one modern foreign language. They are not likely to pay dues to two organizations and actively support both.

I am leaving aside consideration of professional societies which are strictly local in character or devoted exclusively to the pursuit of research activities. But it is important to note that most state educational associations have a division for modern foreign language teachers. Since membership in these state associations is virtually compulsory for high school teachers, one might think that the affiliated foreign language groups would be natural centers about which to build effective state organizations. That may, in fact, be true; but there are some difficulties which must be faced frankly. Many college and university professors do not belong to the state educational associations and do not care to pay the dues generally required. Frequently these professors resist all persuasion on this point fearing that the dreaded "Educationists" may be in control of the organizations in question. Seldom do they make serious investigations to determine the reality or falsity of their fears.

To meet the situations we face today, what we need are strong state organizations supported by the teachers of all modern foreign languages at all levels from grade school through Graduate School. In some states, it may seem wise to include the teachers of classical languages as well. In some states, it may well be that English teachers would like also to be affiliated. Whether such organizations should be linked to state educational associations is not of paramount importance. The answer to that question will be dictated by local state conditions.

What is essential is that these organizations

must be alive and active twelve months in the year, sending out to all the teachers of the state the information which they need to support modern foreign language study and to increase its prestige in the local school districts. They need to gather and disseminate information which may come from schools and colleges throughout the region. They need to have a definite program to urge before the state officials of education. They need to be the strong link between the Modern Language Association of America and the public school system of this country.

What happens in your state and mine when foreign language teachers learn that they can receive an increase in salary only by taking Summer School courses in the United States but will receive *no* increase in salary by going abroad to study the language, culture and civilization which they teach? Who protests? What happens in your state when a large publicly supported teacher training institution drops from its curriculum all language study, ancient or modern? What happens when a group of educators evaluating the work in a particular high school recommends to the principal and superintendent that foreign language study be drastically reduced or dropped entirely as an unessential luxury in the curriculum? Is there in your state or in mine an organization prepared to take up these issues and present with some authority and prestige the case of modern foreign language teachers?

My remarks are somewhat in the form of a question to which I do not have the answer. It may be that among the states represented in this association, there are at the present time organizations functioning efficiently along the lines I have suggested. I should be surprised, however, if all our states have such organizations; and it seems to me that until each individual state is organized to meet its own particular situation, the modern foreign language program from which we hope so much is likely to prove ineffective at the "grass roots" where it is most needed.

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Do High Schools Really Need Heads of Language Departments?

ANYONE who has recently taken courses in supervision or who has read journals of education or professional educational textbooks must have been struck by the increasing frequency with which the position of department head is being challenged. The writer will hasten to make his own stand quite clear. He is not even remotely interested in consolidating any personal gain. Vested interests may resist retrenchment for a while but ultimately lose out in the arena of ideas. The writer is interested only in clarifying his own thinking in this matter and deciding in his own mind what is best for both school and society. He sets forth the following exposition with the hope that it may be helpful to others who may be perplexed by this same question.

Perhaps it is not extravagant to say that the success of even a small high school depends to a large degree on the kind and amount of skilled assistance which the principal can co-ordinate. The principal can not perform duties of a specialized character in many fields. High school pupils registered in language courses may, therefore, be without effective leadership. In such departments, teachers are sometimes secretly pleased with their freedom from supervision which they mistakenly identify with criticism and interference. Some teach one thing, others something else, and since the course of study may be loosely interpreted, or even ignored, a chaotic state of affairs is the inevitable result. Lack of departmental leadership does not generally encourage teacher initiative. It can just as well be used as a cloak to hide incompetence and educational waste. This does not mean that a teacher should be forced to adhere to a rigidly prescribed course of study. A broad but consistent policy is determined upon by the entire department and all other interested sources. Curriculum reorganization through democratic participation and co-operation is a *sine qua non*. The teachers themselves under the guidance of their department head will resolve technical questions of scope,

sequence, integration, interaction, methodology, evaluation and the like. Through democratic means the morale of the teachers will be improved and the quality of the instruction greatly enhanced.

The department head should make a determined effort to convince his teachers that he genuinely appreciates their contribution. While generous in giving praise when it is deserved, he must not fall into the error of being indiscriminating. Supervision should be a co-operative, creative, democratic process promoting growth on the part of the teachers and inducing a warm feeling of professional pride, a sense of achievement, a desire to improve. No department head will ever fancy himself in the role of dictator, omniscient and infallible. Only when the department head feels professionally certain that the educational welfare of the pupils is being sacrificed should he venture to interfere. Teachers gifted with vision, originality, and enterprise should be led to feel that their efforts at experimentation are appreciated, that their ideas are not frowned upon or discouraged with indifference.

There is need for a department head not only for the well-being of the school, but what is much more important, so that opportunities of optimum educative growth will be offered to the future citizens of the community, state, and nation. Taxpayers do not support public education simply to provide jobs for teachers or department heads. The maximum growth of the whole child is what parents are interested in. An efficient department head performs a valuable function in facilitating and improving this educative process.

The development of high morale and co-operation among the teachers, interest in efficient teaching methods and experimental procedures, zeal for calling forth high professional ideals and standards of achievement, these alone serve to justify the appointment of a head to the modern language department.

But specifically what are the definite duties of

a language department head? He or she should be constantly alert to offer effective leadership as follows:

1. Survey the community served by the school
2. Analyze the interests, needs, and capacities of the pupils
3. Organize, supervise, and evaluate the language program
4. Improve language articulation between the elementary and junior high school, between the junior and senior high school
5. Provide for horizontal and vertical integration
6. Construct departmental tests according to the best statistical techniques
7. Administer tests, interpret results, consider implications
8. Advise concerning placement or reclassification of pupils
9. Evaluate language credits of pupils transferring from other schools
10. Develop and maintain cumulative records of pupils
11. Confer with teachers, pupils, and parents when department matters are involved
12. Analyze the interests, abilities, experience, and training of teachers
13. Develop and maintain cumulative records of teachers
14. Provide means whereby teachers may rate themselves
15. Visit classes in a professional and friendly spirit
16. Plan, conduct, follow up results of individual conferences with teachers
17. Plan, conduct, follow up results of demonstration teaching
18. Analyze and appraise own supervision traits and activities
19. Provide means whereby staff members may rate supervisor's traits and activities
20. Guide teachers' cultural growth and professional training
21. Help fill vacancies in the language department
22. Help substitutes and new teachers to adjust
23. Hold department meetings to co-ordinate objectives, methods, teaching materials, standards of achievement
24. Make progress reports to the principal on the work in the department
25. Select textbooks, maps, filmstrips, other audio-visual aids
26. Be responsible for storage, issuance, and return of all teaching materials
27. Help promote extra-curricular activities related to the language department
28. Attend to departmental correspondence with employers, parents, or other institutions
29. Serve on special committees at the request of the principal or superintendent
30. Interpret work in the language department by accepting invitations to speak and write

All these thirty points may be summed up by saying that the chief function of the department head is to improve the instruction in his department.

What should be the qualifications of a language department head? Not just any teacher should be appointed head of a modern language department. The individual selected should possess those personal qualities necessary for effective leadership. *He should be energetic, tactful, resourceful, and infinitely patient. Not simply an order-giver, but one who can set the pace for the members of the department. The department head should possess a broad, deep cultural and professional background. He should know and put into practice all those democratic processes necessary for the smooth and effective functioning of all the parts of the educational structure.* He should of course have achieved distinct success as a teacher in all the languages offered in the department. He should know how to measure the degree to which the course objectives are being realized. This duty will require the administration and interpretation of (1) prognostic tests to measure linguistic aptitude and probable success in language courses, (2) diagnostic tests to discover pupil needs and difficulties, (3) progress tests to show the nature and extent of improvement, and (4) standardized achievement tests to measure the final results for the semester or year in relation to national norms. It is not sufficient merely to give tests and tabulate results. These results must be studied, analyzed, and weaknesses replaced by validated techniques. These psychological techniques may vary in different phases of the same subject according to the maturity and needs of pupils and their purpose, if any, in pursuing language study. The department head should be a leader in thought and a co-ordinator of action. He should give promise of continued cultural and professional growth. If the position of department head were regarded less as a reward for years of perfunctory service, and more as a responsibility bestowed upon those with the capacity for creative leadership, the question posed in the title to this paper might have never arisen.

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ASTP Characteristics in 55 Colleges, 1941-1951: Methodological Practices Pertinent to the Development of Language Skills

INTRODUCTION

THE Army Specialized Training Program in Foreign Languages (ASTP) has been discussed in whole and in part many many times in the various professional journals. The profession at large is familiar with the intent, the scope, the operation, and the implication of this program. For a time the ASTP was the dominant theme of many conferences and writings of members of language groups interested in the place and methodology of modern foreign languages in the high school and college curricula. Gradually, however, less and less was heard about the ASTP as an operational war plan, still less about what its effect should be on foreign language teaching, and a lot was heard about various "new" programs that were being initiated in various colleges. This writer attempted to measure to what extent certain aspects of the ASTP were introduced into the curricula of those institutions which were exposed to the program during World War II.

The study was limited to the 55 colleges that had the ASTP in the belief that they would be a breeding-ground for any new developments. The study was further limited in part to the more common languages of the Romance group. The ASTP was considered in whole and in part. Attention was specifically focussed on the following features of the Army Language Training Program:

1. oral/aural practices
2. special sectioning of students
3. the use of informants
4. the use of audio-visual materials
5. the introduction of "exotic" languages, not traditionally studied in colleges
6. concentrated application of length of time of exposure to the language
7. special divisions of such length of time for any specific purposes.

Essentially the idea was to consider certain college language programs for the academic year 1941-1942 and the same programs for the academic year 1951-1952 in order to see how aims, methodology, and practices developed. Such a study is not exclusively quantitative. That is to say that one cannot measure development so much in percentages as in terms of practice. One measures growth then. Since the ASTP aimed at the tool-use of the language in the sense that literary studies and cultural appreciation so often mentioned as a purpose for the study of foreign languages were practically of no import, and since such tool study generally commenced with elementary application, the best place to study the effect of the ASTP is in the counterpart of its program in the colleges. This place is in the lower level courses, the pre-literature courses or pre-survey-of-literature courses, those courses that develop the foreign language as a tool for any given specific purpose. These courses are generally labelled Elementary, Intermediate, or Advanced. It is true that some literature is studied in some of these courses, but it is generally from the point of view of language usage rather than literary appreciation. Such courses are generally those that are required for an A.B. degree and if not required, are accepted as credit for an A.B. degree. It was on just such courses that this study came to focus.

In an attempt to study the rule rather than the exception, language methodology was considered in a group of languages which are common to all colleges, the large as well as the small. Yet an attempt was made to include any languages evolving in the curriculum as a post World War II development. French and German of course, have been the two languages consistently taught in the college curriculum.

With French, other members of the Romance group, particularly Spanish and Italian are fairly common to the American College curriculum. Consequently this study examined the lower-level courses in French, Italian, and Spanish as a unique grouping.

Interviews were carried out at ten colleges with heads of departments and other faculty members and numerous classes were observed in operation. On this basis a questionnaire was formed and sent to the remaining forty-five institutions. Anyone who has attempted any kind of a study with a free-response questionnaire is aware of the difficulties involved. Such difficulties were enhanced because of the two year-spans under observation, each separated from the other by a decade. Thirty-five institutions answered in whole or in part the questionnaire and together with the ten visited form the basis for the information herein presented.

The questionnaire comprised 30 questions with answers expected for 1941 and 1951. These questions were grouped as follows:

1. methodological practices pertinent to the development of
 - a) the oral/aural skills
 - b) the reading skill
 - c) the writing skill
2. the languages studied for the A.B. degree or for admission practices
3. the hours and credits devoted to different courses
4. the matter of examinations
5. the language requirement and satisfaction of it.

This paper discusses only the methodological practices pertinent to the development of the various skills.

METHODS

With regard to the methodological practices pertinent to the development of the oral/aural, the reading, and the writing skills, the questions involved the naming of the method—without definition required, different aspects of teaching the four skills, and a naming of the aim of the program—again without definition required.

Twenty-four colleges show a growth in oral/aural practices termed as methodology; for fourteen of these such a growth is a significant innovation. Forty-one colleges show some oral/aural practice as part of their methodology.

The direct question about methodology brought forth a variety of answers. The term "oral/aural," for example, is specifically mentioned in describing methodology by only nine colleges. Yet a total of twenty-four show by differently termed responses a change in their methodology to some extent towards some form of oral/aural presentation. These are interesting figures but they do not define the term "oral/aural," nor "oral," nor "aural," nor "eclectic," nor "semi-direct," nor any term that is used to apply to communication by means of speaking. And yet this matter of definition is important, more so in some cases than in others—particularly with respect to "aims" as considered in the next question. Agard and Dunkel in discussing "The Need for More Precise Definitions" stated:

Despite eager discussion and experimentation in the fields of aural comprehension and oral production, language teachers are still working their way toward generally accepted definitions of these abilities. Since the level of native competence will obviously not be reached soon, some explicit standard short of that must be set up, at least temporarily. . . . In any event, whatever materials help to clarify the issues, the profession needs to develop a more explicit and justifiable consensus on all these matters. Only then can the verbal symbols like "oral command" be meaningful in our discussions, and only then can tests be constructed which will accurately measure the skills precisely as they have been defined and thus demonstrate the students' achievements unequivocally.¹

It is suggested that the situation has not changed much with respect to definition during the years since Agard and Dunkel published their book. Yet we must ask how people can continually use such "verbal symbols," and yet have no communion of meaning. It was noted in the interview situation that people were quick to use a term without elaboration almost as though it had a commonly understood meaning. Then they would discuss the term as it applied to their own situations as if their situation were a reflection or modification of it. Answers on the questionnaire indicated a similar attempt to limit or to elaborate upon a supposedly understood definition in terms of the practical situation. There is nothing surprising about this but it does sug-

¹ Frederick B. Agard and Harold B. Dunkel, *An Investigation of Second-Language Teaching* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1948), pp. 294-295.

gest that such words and phrases as are under discussion here do not have an absolute, clear-cut, all-embracing definition. Perhaps such a definition is not possible, but it should be noted that no elaborations such as were attempted by the respondents were ever demanded. Consequently it seems that in their broader sense, whether called skill, method, knowledge, ability, or anything else, the terms under discussion (oral/aural, etc.), have a connotation which seems to be loosely understood and loosely applied by the different members of the progression when interpreted universally, but a more definite meaning when applied locally. Such labels as "oral," "aural," "eclectic," etc., appear as trade names capable only of distinguishing differences between the broadest aspects of language programs.

AIMS

Forty-three colleges imply reading knowledge as part or all of their aim. Variabilities between answers lie in the separate or combined amount of reading, writing, speaking, hearing, or civilization that is desired in a given program. Similar aims were shown by the colleges ten years ago. Nevertheless there has been a change of aims to some extent, if only laterally—because thirty colleges have maintained the *status quo* of '41 while eight indicate broadening by including aural/oral features; for seven of these such broadening is an innovation.

The question about aim in these programs also elicited a great variety of responses, lengthy in some cases, in others involving language and terms difficult to interpret. The comment above then, about definition of terminology in discussing method, is equally applicable here. It is significant that most colleges state aims in more than a few words, that they indicate aims with elaboration or modification of some sort. There appears no one "catchword" to describe "aims"; such a label does not seem desirable; aim of a given program seems to depend on the demands of the current situation.

Yet even in the vaguest of terminology or the most descriptive, aim cannot be divorced from methodology. In the definition of "aims" given, no matter what the terminology, reading knowledge or ability was common to every college

mentioned; but with respect to method *per se* as discussed above, the oral/aural practices were the dominant methodological principles. Also, even though a majority of colleges maintained "aims" as in 1941, a majority shifted methodology.

DICTATION

Dictation seems to be used sparingly in the colleges. Twenty-eight colleges mark a definite place for it, eleven an indefinite place; but dictation has been a new post War II development for only two colleges, although it has generally increased in ten.

It is questionable whether dictation merits attention as involving the oral/aural skills or the writing skill. It is considered here somewhat arbitrarily although we feel that dictation is related primarily to the oral/aural skills, since "A" (oral) must speak, and "B" (aural) must hear before any written recording is done.

However, one college stated it had no concern with dictation because writing was of no concern to its program (strongly oral/aural) but several mentioned dictation as part of the oral/aural work. This suggests that here may be another area in which the profession must define more clearly what it means by the term and/or practice if intelligible communication is to occur.

CONVERSATION

For most of the colleges it seems that whatever conversation is practiced aims equally at comprehension and expression. The actual amount of conversation cannot be measured although a significant increase in conversational practice is apparent in twenty-one colleges, for seven of which it is an innovation. Forty colleges reveal concern for the aural/oral skill through conversation.

The amount of conversation used as a method is difficult to assess due to flexibility and variety of courses and programs even within one institution. Several other factors are at work in the total number of institutions; variants between courses, between sections of the same courses, between instructors, etc. The significant feature about the responses to this question is that most colleges report conversation as an integral part of their methodology, and that

the ones for which this is an innovation, are in a slight majority.

Question-and-answer in forty colleges is a common way of developing oral/aural skills by means of conversation although mim-mem of basic forms appears as a new adjunct to this practice in six of the colleges, while five show "free-talking" as an innovation. For all but nine, question-and-answer is a practice mentioned ten years ago but only nine indicated mim-mem as a practice then and only seven indicated "free-talking" as a practice as against the nineteen that mention the latter two now.

Question-and-answer seems to be the common over-all desirable technique for conversational practice. Yet there seems to be other techniques creeping in, for example, some sort of memory or drill work. There are enough elaborations in the answers to this question to suggest that question-and-answer practice alone is not considered a wholly satisfactory technique in itself to develop whatever oral/aural skill is desired.

READING

Numbers of pages are unsatisfactory in considering reading because pages vary in length, print, and in difficulty. Percentages also are difficult to compare or group because of such variants as instructor's skill and students' abilities. Descriptive words such as "mostly," "little," etc., obviously are unsatisfactory. All, such considerations however, are identifiable in a broad common denominator scale which was set up on a thirds basis as being generally comprehensive enough to include the vaguest statement and indicative enough to delimit pertinent differences.

Reading-for-comprehension is *not* a common practice in reading in nine colleges; only two colleges indicate a decrease here since '41 and four indicate an increase.

Twenty-seven colleges show little concern with translation in reading, while eight colleges show a decrease in translation, and twenty-nine maintain the *status quo* of 1941.

It is curious to note that the two questions about reading (comprehension and translation) while seemingly related as techniques for the reading skill do not show related answers. We find that in these colleges which do a lot of

reading for comprehension, a lot of translation may also be done, and vice versa, but that we could not consider the answers to one question without considering those for the other.

What is more curious about the answers to these questions is that few colleges fall in the middle third. This indicates that the reading aim *per se* is fairly clearly defined in all the colleges and concerns itself primarily with comprehension rather than translation. However, changes in reading-for-comprehension and reading-translation as applicable to the reading skill are negligible. Since colleges are increasing developments in the oral/aural practices but are holding firm in reading practices, it would seem they feel that such development of practices in teaching the aural/oral skills in no way limits—and is probably super-imposed on—the development of the reading skill.

WRITING

The over-all picture with reference to the writing skill is about the same in 1951 as it was in 1941 with a slight decrease indicated in five colleges. There is a tendency to pay more attention to its development in the elementary courses. The focus on this skill is generally less than on the other three skills.

Few colleges differentiate between grammar analysis and writing. One college, however, indicates that writing has no place in its program but that grammar analysis has. Perhaps the answers from the other colleges are due to a reluctance on their part to make such a clear cut separation, or are an indication that a significant majority of the profession believes such a separation either impossible or impractical. When we compare the *status quo* and decrease concerning the writing skill with increases concerning the oral/aural skills, we find that the latter have shown the most positive development. We note that reading has generally shown a slight decrease and writing also, but both have not attested to enough together to make room for the marked growth of aural/oral practices in the curriculum.

CONCLUSION

When considering aims and method together an ambivalence in the interpretation appears. For no matter how answers relative to each

were phrased, no matter what developments have taken place within the limits of each—or even within other related areas—reading knowledge seems inescapably linked to a large extent to the aim of the language program of these colleges. Oral/aural developments in the last analysis are a modification not a replacement of aims. They are a modification because they appear primarily as methodology. This raises an old question as to the straightest line between two points: how much does oral/aural methodology contribute to reading knowledge? Many connected with the ASTP thought it contributed a great deal. However, Agard and Dunkel concluded on the basis of careful study of experimental programs in a limited number of colleges and high schools that there is little relation between skills when taught by one method exclusively.² The idea that an oral/aural approach helps the reading skill apparently is still in the minds of professional language teachers. The findings indicated that reading and writing practices have remained relatively stable in these colleges but oral/aural practices have increased. This question about how much the learning of one skill contributes to the learning of another is a crucial one for the profession and one that needs an answer. There is a shift in method going on but the desired aim seems to be the same: reading knowledge. Is it possible that in time the primary aim of college language teaching may change?

In comparing the aims and the methods with the techniques used in achieving them, the percentages in which the four skills share a program is not measurable. It is doubtful if there is a way to measure them. However, some interesting inferences can be made about the changes found in the teaching of such skills. For example, these colleges are more concerned in recent years with aural/oral skills than they are with reading or writing. The latter skill plus reading-through translation is generally more neglected. But reading for comprehension, which concerns these colleges a great deal, would seem to involve a great deal of talking in the foreign language or in English. It involves

the printed word as understood, and such understanding as expressed in the speaking process. This means that whatever the aim of a course is—and for all colleges it is tied up with reading—the technique of teaching used in achieving that aim is generally oral/aural. Moreover since the aural/oral practices have increased in these colleges, since reading for comprehension is the major aim of the reading skill in them, and since aim in reading and writing generally has not changed, a subtle change is noticed within these language programs. This change concerns technique and is moving towards an oral/aural emphasis. We would point out in support of this statement that: 1) teaching relative to the writing skill has not changed in most of the colleges; 2) the teaching relative to the reading skill has not changed radically in most of the colleges; 3) the teaching relative to the aural/oral skills has changed appreciably, has increased in fact, in most of the colleges.

This increase has sometimes, *not always*, been accompanied by an increase in class time. It is suggested, however, that the oral/aural procedures that have increased, while not replacing reading or writing necessarily, have become integrated with reading and writing to such an extent that the writing and reading procedures have become absorbed in the oral/aural by serving as a basis for oral/aural practice.

Yet, exactly where one procedure leaves off and another begins is difficult to determine. It seems in these colleges that the method is determining the aim, not the aim, the method. Since this method is an oral/aural one, it seems that in time, if the growth we have indicated, continues, the printed symbol will have less implication for the professional language teacher than it now has, both at the college level of instruction and ultimately at the high school level, in the basic language courses.

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² Agard & Dunkel, *ibid.*, p. 158.

A Princess and Her Magic Footwear

WE MIGHT find it profitable to go back and reread, with our fullest awareness, much of the literary heritage with which we became acquainted early in life and which we have the feeling of knowing "depuis toujours." In such an experiment we may be astonished to rediscover the text as it really is, to notice details—perhaps of some importance—which somehow had escaped our attention or else had been completely forgotten, and to see the little tricks of distortion which our memory has played upon us. For example, a good many people might be considerably surprised if they would take the trouble to read thoughtfully the original of our "Mother Goose" tradition, *Les contes de ma mère l'oye*, which Charles Perrault published in 1697. Known in English translation since early in the eighteenth century, the *contes* of Perrault are surely by far the most familiar of all "fairy stories" in what would probably be thought of by most Americans as our "English" cultural heritage.

Bluebeard long ago became a generic term, to be found in any English dictionary. *Le petit chaperon rouge* (who ever reflects upon the quaint translation "riding-hood"?), *La belle au bois dormant*—tales like these are embedded in our consciousness as few things read in later life can ever be. Apparently, however, the one that most of us feel that we know best of all is *Cendrillon* or "Cinderella."

In the earlier years of this century, before the first World War, the short story was beginning to make a place for itself as a subject of serious study in college. An important textbook, designed for use in that connection, gave a prominent place to *Cinderella* as an example for analysis.¹ That story seemed to be indicated because it "has been universally known for a long time, and therefore is presumably good, that is, artistic." It was praised as well-nigh perfectly illustrating the various principles of effective narrative construction.

It looks as if the author of this textbook did

not refresh his memory by rereading the original. In his summary of the story he overlooked, for instance, as so many people seem to do, the fact that Cinderella's forgetfulness of the hour, and consequent loss of the slipper in her hasty departure, did not happen at the *first* ball she attended at the palace, but at the second one, the following evening, when she was "dressed more magnificently than before."

Among the reasons given for taking *Cinderella* as a model of narrative method, it was held up as a perfect example of a "series of causes and effects." Yet however logically the series of events in this story may seem to move, there is a flaw in its "logic," even though no one appears ever to have questioned it. This is not the mere matter of a fairy godmother possessing magical powers of transformation. Belief in the existence of such "fey folk," or at least a fondness for imagining them, is commonly taken for granted in mediaeval tales. The strange thing is not that the godmother's magic "works," but rather that for one detail it (very conveniently) does not. If everything in the girl's apparel and equipage was to return to its original form at the stroke of midnight, why should the slippers be an exception? Somehow both the one she lost and the one she carried home with her avoided the commandment which applied to all else! Why should they not return to their former condition the second night, just as they did the first?

The appearance of Walt Disney's film *Cinderella* was promptly hailed by a discerning movie editor as a most remarkable event.² *Cinderella*, he began by saying, is "the classic heroine of the screen." This is the story we have seen in movies a thousand times, only "disguised with a masquerade of realism or a pretense of modernity." Borrowed continually by Hollywood without acknowledgment, this

¹ *The Art of the Short Story*, by Carl H. Grabo, Charles Scribner's sons, 1913.

² Louis Berg in *This Week* for January 1, 1950.

"rags-to-riches theme" is the principal story on which the movies were built. It was summarized by this editor as the original version of the familiar formula: "Boy meets girl; boy loses girl as midnight approaches, but in the end, with the aid of the famous glass slipper, boy gets girl." Now finally, after its innumerable disguises, "Disney's made the real thing." The write-up is labeled in journalese of prosaic tone: "Local girl makes good."

In its fundamental pattern the story of Cinderella was certainly known long before the time of Perrault. No one knows when or where it started. Its theme of the cruel step-mother was a familiar motif in the Middle Ages, as we see in various old popular ballads—where likewise the innocent step-child triumphs in the end. Perhaps its charm blinds us to anachronisms. While it seems to have a mediaeval setting, the scene of the ball suggests a much later period, and the equipage in which Cinderella rode thereto could scarcely have been imagined by anyone who had not seen the royal carriages of the late seventeenth century.

More important is the animating spirit of the tale. In the politeness and gentleness of Perrault's narration there must be reflected the taste for fine manners of one who felt at home in the atmosphere of court life at Versailles. And the ideals of chivalry—so largely a French contribution to western civilization—affect the story to make it different from versions in other languages. Here there is no question of punishing the cruel sisters. In her hour of triumph our heroine is completely magnanimous. Not only does she pardon them "de bon cœur"; promptly after her marriage to the prince, she lodges them in the palace and marries them to "deux grands seigneurs." Thus she shows that she really is a princess at heart; she is too much of a real person to be spiteful or ungenerous; she has the greatness of soul of true *noblesse*.

As a "success" story, however, Cinderella must not have been viewed by Perrault quite so naïvely as it seems to have been by many people since. The *moralité* which the author appended in very neat verses appears to have been little heeded. There, in the first place, he brings out clearly the idea that beauty, though a rare treasure, is not enough, even though enhanced by adornment. Infinitely more valuable is the

priceless quality, the real fairy gift, *la bonne grâce*. Finally he goes farther with a comment which may be interpreted as disillusionment or even cynicism. With all the advantages of high birth, intelligence, courage, good sense, and whatever talents, he says, all this may count for nothing without the help of powerful friends:

Pour votre avancement ce seront choses vaines,
Si vous n'avez, pour les faire valoir,
Ou des parrains, ou des marraines.

So, however deserving Cinderella might be, for her success the fairy godmother was indispensable.

Oddities of translation begin with the very title of the story, the name of its chief character. As Perrault told it, at home the girl was commonly called *Cucendron*, though the younger of the two step-sisters, not so unkind as the elder, called her *Cendrillon*. What her real name had been we shall never know.

In a well-known American edition of 1881, we read that "the two sisters gave her the nickname of *Cinderella*, or, the cinder-wench."³ As Perrault's tale was "newly translated" in a London edition of 1911, we are informed that "when she had done her work, she would settle down in the chimney-corner and sit in the *cinders*, so that most of the people in the house called her the 'cinder-girl,' but the younger daughter. . . called her 'Cinderella.'"⁴ A later English version has her "sit down among cinders and ashes, which made her commonly be called *Cinderwench*; but the youngest (*sic*), who was not so rude and uncivil as the eldest, called her Cinderella."⁵

While it goes without saying that in English the name was long ago settled for all time as *Cinderella*, yet for the student of language this is just another example of what happens in attempts at translation. In the first place, an exact rendering of what she was most "commonly" called, *Cucendron*, would be well-nigh impossible—and no doubt undesirable. The fundamental fault, however, is the familiar one

³ *The Children's Book*, edited by Horace E. Scudder, Houghton Mifflin, 1881, p. 79 *et seq.*

⁴ *Perrault's Fairy Tales*, Newly translated by S. R. Littlewood, London, Herbert and Daniel, 1911, p. 59 *et seq.*

⁵ *The Blue Fairy Book*, edited by Andrew Lang, London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1927, vol. I, p. 95 *et seq.*

of accepting mere cognate words as exact equivalents. *La cendre*, as one usually says it, or *les cendres* in the words of Perrault, means simply "ashes." The English word *cinder* has as its fundamental meaning that of slag or dross from a metal furnace, or the hard residue left from burning *coal*. The sort of thing known to us now as "clinkers" would not have been found in any mediaeval chimney-corner, nor would even our patient heroine be expected to endure the discomfort of sitting on such material.

As for *wench*, there was a time when it might have meant simply "girl," but it has long tended to have derogatory implications, including generally low social class and often easy virtue—to put it mildly. Though the name applied to the "household drudge" was obviously not intended to be complimentary, it hardly implied the *kind* of insult that "wench" might seem to represent.

The German form *Aschenbrödel* may likewise be rather too strong a term, but at least it is built upon the word for "ashes," not *die Kohle*.

There is no end to the interesting details that one finds in studying translations. For instance, there is the item of the rat which *la fée* selected from among the three "à cause de sa maîtresse barbe" and which became by her touch "un gros cocher, qui avait les plus belles moustaches qu'on ait jamais vues." Now one might suppose that the present-day gross abuse of *tremendous* as if it meant merely "enormous" (itself usually an exaggeration!) is a phenomenon of rather recent development. Yet in the 1881 version to which we have referred, the rat in question has "a tremendous pair of whiskers!" The 1911 translation, on the other hand, translates the *maîtresse barbe* as "lordly whiskers"—apparently about as close as possible to the tone of the original.

The crowning example of mistranslation is, of course, in the handling of Perrault's subtitle, "La petite pantoufle de *vair*." This word *vair* may be found in any modern English dictionary, defined as the name of a costly fur used for the rich apparel of royalty and nobility in the Middle Ages. Yet if one is familiar with manuscripts of the time when Perrault's stories were translated into English, it is evident that

mere spelling was not taken too seriously in those days. *Vair* was then no longer familiar to most people, in that time when mediaeval lore and language were neglected in favor of everything "classic." It sounded like *verre* which means "glass"; no doubt it seemed simply a variant spelling. So the English version is unique in having poor Cinderella wear slippers of *glass*—a kind of slipper-material certainly undreamed-of in her day, and not very practical for ballroom wear if you stop to think of it.

Probably as "classic" an edition as any, for a generation or more of American readers, was the one edited in 1881 by Horace E. Scudder. Here our story was duly entitled, with traditional dictionary-style punctuation, "Cinderella; or, The Glass Slipper." As Perrault's tales were "newly" translated in England in 1911, the subtitle appeared as "The Little Glass Slipper." In that same year was published the revised edition of *The Century Dictionary and Cyclopedia*, which stands out from other books treating the subject by its recognition of this distorted detail. Though its summary of the story speaks conventionally of the "tiny glass slipper," a subsequent remark explains the mistranslation of what should have been "a fur slipper." Such occasional explanations, however, have had no effect upon the established tradition. In any ordinary standard book of reference we find as usual that Cinderella "loses her glass slipper."⁶ Could we name in the English language any object that carries with it a more unmistakably definite literary allusion? A recent advertisement, alluding to Cinderella, asks, "Who needs a glass slipper?"⁷ Surely the mention of that symbol to any English-speaking person will unerringly recall the fairy-tale heroine who won the prince.

There is food for thought in the mere fact that the English tradition has unquestioningly *accepted* this "glass" symbol. That fact, we may say, is itself symbolical. It stands for a rather characteristic difference between French and English literature through the centuries.

The mediaeval French tales which have come down to us, however they may appear psycho-

⁶ Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, G. & C. Merriam Co. (1937), p. 181.

⁷ New York Times Magazine, June 10, 1951.

logically, have a way of being realistic with regard to physical details. Costumes, equipment in general, prices of things, customs and manners are as people knew them in every-day life. We have the impression of a world where things happen by understandable cause and effect, not a realm of fancy where anything can occur at any time. To be sure, the "realism" in Cinderella is compounded of elements partly mediaeval and partly *grand siècle*, and the style of narration suggests seventeenth-century romance, but they stand on a certain basis of authenticity. So when Cinderella is magically appareled as a princess, she wears the kind of fur slippers that a properly-dressed mediaeval princess *would* wear. It seemed perfectly natural. Who on earth would want to wear slippers of glass—to say nothing of trying to dance in them?

The idea of a *glass* slipper, though its presence in the story is quite accidental, may well symbolize the English quality which we call

"whimsy." We see it in a high degree in such fanciful tales of more modern vintage as *Alice in Wonderland* or *Winnie the Pooh*. With such clever and original writers as the authors of those celebrated stories, masters of just the proper style, this quality of whimsy may indeed impart a rare charm. It is, however, a very fragile thing, and easily becomes merely silly.

The fairy-stories that belong most inseparably to our folklore are surely the ones that came from France. So it seems ironic that the best-known of them all should be forever symbolized by a detail thoroughly *un-French*. A notion which would doubtless have seemed quite idiotic in the time when Cinderella originated, and would have been too fantastic for the writer who retold the tale for us, is unshakably established as the very detail that appears peculiarly attractive and somehow significant.

LOUIS FOLEY

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NOTICE

CENTRAL STATES MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

The Association will have a dual session in 1955. The first meeting will be held at Purdue University, April 15-16, with headquarters at the Memorial Union, and the second meeting will be at Minneapolis, Minnesota, May 6-7, with headquarters at the Hotel Leamington. Dr. Elton Hocking, Purdue University, will be in charge of the arrangements for the Purdue meeting, and Dr. Emma Marie Birmaier, University of Minnesota, will be in charge at Minneapolis.

The following are the section chairmen for the Purdue Meeting:

French—*Chairman*, Mr. Charles C. Martin, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Indiana;

German—*Chairman*, Professor Hermann Barnstorff, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri;

Italian—*Chairman*, Dr. Norma V. Fornaciari, Roosevelt University, Chicago, Illinois;

Slavic—*Chairman*, Professor Serge A. Zenkovsky, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts,

Vice-Chairman, Professor Edmund Ordon, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan;

Spanish-Portuguese—*Chairman*, Professor Charles Staubach, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan;

Teacher-Training—*Chairman*, Professor Vincent Scanio, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Those wishing to read papers at this meeting are urged to write to the proper chairman as early as possible.

Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools

The Foreign Language Program in the Holland (Michigan) Public Schools

In September, 1953, a pilot course in German was begun in the fourth-grade of one elementary school in Holland, Michigan. During the preceding spring the plans were made for this course by a committee of public school personnel and members of the school board. In order to solve the problem of a teacher, I volunteered my services for the pilot course. As I have heretofore done only college teaching, it was felt that it would be easier for me to start with fourth-grade children rather than youngsters who had not as yet become well-accustomed to school-room routines and procedures. I might say that I entered that first class session on September with some misgivings, but they were entirely unfounded. Never in any teaching have I had such a cooperative, enthusiastic, eager-to-learn group of students. The period at the grade school is my dessert course this year. Everyone (children, regular teachers, and especially myself) has a wonderful time in the elementary school German class.

At first I expected to have a single room of fourth-grade children, but due to the tremendous enrollments of our schools, there had to be two sections made of the sixty-odd children eligible for the fourth-grade in Longfellow school. When the parents heard that one section would receive foreign language instruction, they all raised such a clamor that there was no choice but to offer the instruction to both sections. Consequently, I spend one-half hour a day at the school, each section getting fifteen minutes of my time, five days a week. It may seem inconceivable to some of you that these children, over thirty in a class, could be learning to speak and understand German. It is quite true that in fifteen minutes I cannot call on every child individually, but by grouping the children by rows they get a chance to respond

by threes or fours, and that way I can be sure that each has a chance to repeat the German phrase under consideration. And of course I nearly always have the entire class repeat anything a child has said individually, so that they all get constant practice in the use of the language. I am really surprised, however, that they do so well, and wonder what their progress would be if they could be taught in sections of ten or twelve pupils.

It hardly seems necessary to say that English is seldom used during the foreign language class period. In fact, it was several weeks before the children realized that I could speak English at all, and I let them continue as long as possible under the impression that I knew only German. It was in the second or third week of instruction, I believe, that a bell rang suddenly near the end of one class period. The children all looked startled and seemed uncertain of what to do, but then they abruptly arose and filed out of the class leaving me standing there. The next day I learned that on the playground they were all laughing because they hadn't been able to explain to Herr Ellert that it was a fire drill, but just had to leave me flat. It's quite true that by using little English the children often do not catch the meaning of something I say, but I feel that if it is repeated often enough and dramatized sufficiently, they will eventually comprehend everything I say and they are not tempted to make translations from one language to the other. After all, there is no hurry. By starting the language program while they are so young they have plenty of time. Most of us heard our native language for two or three years before we understood very much of it and tried to express ourselves in it. The way a child learns his own language should set the pattern for the way in which he learns a

second language. His conversations in the classroom are limited to those things falling within the child's experience and he will learn a vocabulary that will allow him to express himself in his own world.

This brings up a point which needs some clarification. There seems to be a misconception among a great many teachers that language and formal grammar are synonymous. There are even those who laugh with scorn at the idea of teaching a foreign language by any means except a formal presentation of grammar, even to grade-school children. Certainly grammar is a part of any language, as is vocabulary, and pronunciation, and intonation, but that is not to say that any one of these elements in itself is a *language*. Somewhere along the line, long after our civilizations had developed and people had been using language for many centuries, the linguists began taking our speech apart and classifying it as to grammar, pronunciation, etc. No one could say, however, that not until that was done, did anyone use a language. Likewise no one would be so foolish as to recommend that we explain each part of speech to the child in the cradle so that he could use it correctly when he learned to talk. On the other hand, all of us who are parents know the thrill of realizing that the baby has at last learned to communicate his wants to us and to understand what we say to him. We know that if he hears correct speech from us constantly, he will also speak correctly as he matures. So with teaching a foreign language to grade-school children. As they hear only the correct forms of the language over the years, as they see these forms in print a little later on, they will naturally acquire and use the proper grammatical and syntactical forms. Then, after they have reached an age when linguistic terminology will make sense to them, they will be in a position to profit from a more formal study of the grammar of the language. At no time do they need to be acutely conscious of cases and tenses being used, any more than in our everyday speech we are conscious of these grammatical concerns. I would much prefer to have my pupils, either grade-school or college, able to tell me in German what they had eaten for breakfast or where they spent their vacation than to look at a German sentence and say "Hier ist ein unter-

ordnendes Verbindungswort." If we are to use only German in the class, but at the same time teach formal grammar, it is easy to see that the type of vocabulary the children will acquire becomes not only ridiculous but useless. And if we do not use German, the course will rapidly become merely another English grammar class with a vocabulary that makes about as much sense in one language as in the other so far as youngsters are concerned. In either one the children will probably never have much use for it unless they happen to enter the field of foreign language teaching.

I have often been asked what the language instruction replaced in the grade-school curriculum. The answer is very simple: NOTHING! Merely by a more efficient use of time, we found room for the language program. In other words, the children don't waste so much time as formerly. Since the program started, the school board and administration have been receiving complaints from the parents of the children in the other three public elementary schools in town because their children are not getting any foreign language instruction, while the parents of the Longfellow children are, on the whole, delighted and appreciative of the efforts and time expended in this way on their fourth-graders.

Since there was very little available in the way of material suitable for use with young children, I spent most of my spare time last year preparing a teacher's manual that I could use this year. I tried to select areas of natural interest to the children and then divided the work into broad units. There is no specific amount of time spent on any one unit. When the children have gained control of the material we move on to something new. I was very fortunate during the first weeks of the course to have the help of a student teacher that I selected from among my better students at the college. She was really of invaluable help in getting across the concept of greetings and introductions and in performing the appropriate actions for the simple orders I would give, such as to write her name on the board, to erase something, to open or close the door, etc. Undoubtedly the children picked up the language faster than they might otherwise have done because she was there to lend her assistance.

Along with the regular conversations, each of which entails much use of repetition and dramatization, I have made a great deal of use of songs and games. With the exception of a number of Christmas carols the children learned, the songs, games, and poems that I teach the children employ to a large extent the vocabulary being learned in the unit. For example, after we had learned the names of the colors, we learned the singing game, "Grün, grün, grün sind alle meine Kleider."

Last summer I used the same material on a group of college students, omitting, of course, the games, songs, etc. With the students, whom I was teaching for three hours a day in an eight-week course, I also used simple readers, but for the conversational part of the program I found the same material prepared for the elementary school children very effective. Naturally they covered the material at a much faster pace, so that in eight weeks they had learned as much as I would expect my fourth-graders, in fifteen minutes a day, to acquire in a year and a half or more. Some of these students, incidentally, were elementary school teachers who were interested in starting language programs in their own schools and so they were particularly anxious to become acquainted with the type of material that could be used with children. On the other hand, when some people outside my class heard that I had used the grade-school lessons on the college class and intended to do so again, they raised their eyebrows and scoffed, "But that's kindergarten stuff. You can't use such elementary language in college classes." This notion is, I believe, another common misconception regarding language. Just what is elementary language? Are we justified in labelling our courses Elementary German, Intermediate German, and so on? There is certainly such a thing as elementary language. It is the baby's first attempts at sounds and his experiments to control the vocal noises he finds he can make. Out of that babbling and gurgling will develop the ability to make an almost infinite variety of sounds, from which he will select those that are used by the adults around him to convey meaning. And so he reaches the point where he is able himself to communicate with others by means of the sounds he can make, but he has not yet acquired an accepted

pronunciation or structural patterns that are considered standard. In short, he can communicate with those who are constantly with him, but outside of the home he will find many who fail to understand what he is trying to say. At this point we might say he is using "intermediate" language. By the time a child is three or four, however, and certainly by the time he enters school, he will generally be using the same language his parents use, although his vocabulary is not as extensive as theirs. A great many factors have entered into his language learning by that time, so that in any kindergarten there will be quite a diversity of language skill among the children, a diversity that continues to increase as the child grows older. We all know adults who seem unable to express themselves much better than many kindergarten children. Still their language, and that of the children, too, can no longer be classified as elementary, for they are able to communicate their thoughts and wants and to understand the expressed thoughts and desires of others.

Looking at our foreign-language instruction in this light, do we ever teach "elementary" or even "intermediate" language? The answer is obviously that we do not. We always teach the standard language, used alike by adults and children in a foreign land, regardless of whether we offer the instruction to young children, to high-school pupils, to college students, or to adult evening classes. The learners all start from the same point—no knowledge of the vocabulary, structure, or sound system of the foreign language under consideration, and consequently all have the same things to learn if they are to acquire this new means of communication. The type of vocabulary and the amount they are capable of learning in a given length of time, will, naturally, vary considerably according to the age of the student, his intelligence, and his interest or eagerness to learn.

One other point I would like to mention is that there are college language teachers who feel or are afraid that if we teach foreign languages to grade-school children, we will be hurting ourselves, for there will be no one left to teach when these children reach college age. If such were the case, then no one would take mathematics in college, having learned arithmetic in the grades, no one would study English

literature, or many other subjects which are also introduced early in the child's schooling. Personally I think there would be so much more interest aroused in foreign-language study that our departments would be filled with students who could actually read the great literature found among all languages. We could at least teach in college those things worthy of the mature student's consideration—drama, philosophy, and poetry, just to mention a few, and the student would be capable of discussing this literature in the language in which it was written.

To get back to the Holland program, there are many problems that still have to be settled. About all I can say further is that we have made a start, and having started it would be difficult to stop. As our Superintendent of Schools expressed it, "We have a lion by the tail." The school board wants the program to go on and to be extended to the other public elementary schools in the city, the parents of the Long-fellow school children want it to continue, though in all honesty I must admit there are a few who would prefer to have their children learn French, Spanish, or Dutch, which presents a problem as to how to offer several languages so that everyone can take a choice. Certainly the children themselves want to continue and most of them don't care what language they are learning. The biggest problem is probably that of securing teachers who are qualified to teach a foreign language. A lesser one is the matter of which grade to start the instruction in. To settle some of these matters, the Superintendent has been asked to appoint a committee consisting of members of the

school board, laymen, public school teachers, and language teachers from the college to discuss them and to try to arrive at some satisfactory solutions. What this committee will decide remains to be seen.

Meanwhile, to those who are interested in starting similar programs in their communities, I would suggest that they meet with the school board and urge them to consider the national needs and to explore all the language resources of the community before deciding on any one language. America needs people who have the ability to use many languages, and we should not ignore some of the lesser known tongues. There are some wonderful programs already going forward in French and Spanish, and there are a few started in German. There need to be more in the latter language as well as some developed in Russian, Polish, Italian, Dutch, and the Oriental languages, just to mention a few fields that have been pretty much neglected to date. But remember, whatever your choice of language or languages that you wish to offer in your schools, once started the children don't want to stop, their parents don't want them to stop, so there is nothing left for the school administration to do but find a fulltime teacher and assume the necessary expense to continue the language program. By just volunteering to get a program started, you will not only be educating the youngsters in the use of a valuable foreign language, but you will be doing your country a real service.

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Notes and News

Usage and Definitions

In the course of many discussions, there is nothing so sobering as the use of definitions: arguments can be often cleared up; or, at least, positions are made clear when one insists on using terms with a definite meaning. Thus, criticizing an important book on *Le problème de l'Incroyance* by Lucien Febvre, the best retorts were made by Pannier who tried to analyze such terms as *croyance* and *foi*. In the same way, I wish it were possible to agree on the significance of terms like *humanisme*, *humaniste*, *individualisme*, *lyrisme*, *lyrique*, and *Renaissance*. May I make a few remarks about some of these words?

Let us take *Renaissance*. It was used for the first time in France to designate a period, when Balzac mentioned it in 1829, as Huizinga pointed out, and I find another example in *La Fausse Matresse*: "en style de la renaissance." Now, nothing has prevented a correct understanding of the XVIth century so much as the usage of the word *Renaissance* to designate the civilization and culture of that time. There might be little harm in discarding this term which has been interpreted in so many different ways (cf. Paul Renucci, *L'Aventure de l'humanisme européen au Moyen Age* [Clermont-Ferrand, 1953]).

If we turn toward *humanisme* and *lyrisme*, we note, first, that such words ending in *-isme* began to be used, as a rule, rather late in the XIXth century, in France. Thus Ed. Faral ('L'humanisme et la pensée médiévale', *Pensée humaniste et tradition chrétienne aux CV^e et XVI^e siècles* [Paris, 1950]) gives the date of 1874 as that of the first usage of *humanisme* with something of the modern meaning. He points out that, in 1765, the word had already been used, but it had then a sentimental connotation and referred to a general love of humanity (cf. *le français moderne*, 20 [1952]).

But the word *humaniste* was used in France in the XVIth century, although extremely rarely, since I know of only two examples at that time. The first is in a translation by Claude Gruget (cf. Augusto Campana, "The origin of the

word 'humanist'," *Journal of the Warburg and Courtauld Institutes*, IX [1946], 60-73, and P. O. Kristeller, "Humanism and Scholasticism in the Italian Renaissance," *Byzantium*, XVII [1944-1945], 346-374). The second example is by Montaigne in the essay I, 56: *Des prières*. And it is interesting to note that it was only in 1588 (after his trip to Rome), that Montaigne added the passage in which he explains that he maintains, in his work, the words *fortune*, *destinée*, *accident*, . . . in spite of the reproaches he had received from the Church, and he stresses that he speaks in a human fashion (as a layman, we would say), and not as a theologian: "le dire humain a ses formes plus basses et ne se doit servir de la dignité, majesté, regence, du parler divin" (éd. Villey, chez Alcan, Paris, 1922, I, 310). This, I believe, is important to emphasize. I also find a word which led to much misunderstanding in connection with Montaigne, and this is the word *sceptique* which first meant *chercheur* and could be applied in the case of Montaigne, in this sense (cf. Clément Sclafert, *L'âme religieuse de Montaigne* [Paris, 1951], p. 40).

My main object here was to draw attention to the meaning of *humanist* in the XVIth century. According to Campana, the word "qualifies a person as a public or private teacher of classical literature." It also "refers to the student of classical learning who is not necessarily also a teacher." What I want to underline is that *humanisme*, which, of course, has nothing to do, today, with *humanitarisme*, applies to the study of the classics, and does not imply any moral judgment as to the value of that study. Moreover, in the case of Montaigne, it is important to see that what this author writes corresponds only to his opinions, his fantasy, not to his religious beliefs. He makes a distinction between what he allows himself to discuss, and what he adheres to, as a member of the Church.

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A Campaign for the Rehabilitation of Grammar

This article is not for those who consider that the intensive oral method is the means and end of language study in high school and college. It is directed toward that considerable group of teachers which is convinced that the aim of language study is broader. These teachers realize that there are important cultural by-products of language study¹ and valuable transfers of learning,² as well as a firm basis for reading the foreign language or for expressing ideas

(written or oral) should the need ever arise. These teachers whom I am addressing are aware, moreover, that the

¹ Need we list them?—knowledge of foreign history and institutions, as well as an acquaintance with the way a non-American thinks.

² Clarification of English grammar, amplification of reading and writing skill in English, as well as the transfer of the ability to organize abstract materials.

study of language is primarily the study of a grammar, and that the study of grammar has, besides the incidental advantages noted above, an essential value as one of the intellectual disciplines of education.

It is time now to begin a publicity campaign to vie with that of the proponents of the oral method. There are many teachers who hold our view, but we have so far made ourselves heard only between the cloistered covers of professional pamphlets. This article is not designed to convince the oralists that they are wrong and dangerous. It is designed to convince only the intellectual disciplinarians and to convince them, not of things they already believe, but rather of things that must be done in order to instruct the public. The public can be counted upon to support us if it is effectively informed.

The program of action that I propose is one of counter-attack and rejuvenation.

We must attack the faction which started by attacking our concept of intellectual discipline, the faction which has harmed languages by sacrificing everything to the oral method. These "oralists" are our enemies. We must expose their weaknesses and failures to the general public, demonstrating that their so-called "practicality" is only apparent when their methods apply to unselected groups of students. These oralists have their place where practical training in language is legitimately required. Institutions of foreign trade, military language schools, and commercial "method" schools teach the oral method with success because it is concentrated and undiluted by other studies, because students are screened for natural linguistic aptitude, and because the skill of the student is put to immediate practical use. Without this immediate continuation of training abroad, the proficiency acquired by the oral method would soon be forgotten. The oralists have their place in such institutions. We must remove them from the academic curriculum in high school and college.

The oralists point noisily to their immediate results. Unfortunately for them these results, unless immediately utilized, disappear. Pronunciation, idiomatic use of the spoken language, and aural comprehension are limited objectives in the first place. Learned in a vacuum, they easily slip out of the student's memory. We intellectual disciplinarians must point to our broad objective of intellectual discipline through the study of the structure of the lan-

guage besides the whole array of "plus" values which cluster around it. We must point out that while the oralist's student soon forgets what he may have known well, the intellectually disciplined student remembers enough of the basic structure to expand any one of the plus values—including oral and aural facility—of his choosing.

We can profit by some of the just criticism leveled at us by the oralist. Our subject lacks interest; we must find ways to enliven grammar study. Means and machines tried by the oralist should be adapted to our use. We must use records, visual aids and, of course, conversation itself—but all to present grammar study. We can find means the oralists have not enlisted, borrowing them from the linguists,³ creating untried schemes, and perhaps even searching for more palatable labels than "grammar" or "intellectual discipline."

We have been told we do not give the student what he wants. He can be taught that he wants and needs the study of grammar by the advertising afforded by new experiments. Workshops, speeches to civic groups, and talks to high school students—all these methods can be employed to explain to the public and the students that they have been sold a bill of goods.

We must, in short, adopt a double-barreled program of publicity. We must point publicly to the failures of our enemy, the oralist. We must attract the attention of the public to the healthy basis of language study. On the other hand, our experiments and other measures of publicity must not only attract attention to our product for advertising purposes, but they must also effectively modernize the methods for teaching a respected intellectual discipline. Such a program will certainly emphasize the legitimacy of the need of foreign languages in academic training. It will at the same time support the broader, common struggle of all teachers who believe in high school and undergraduate college education as general discipline rather than as vocational and professional training.

ROBERT M. HAMMOND

University of Arizona

³ A particularly valuable article on the use of linguistic and other materials for increased interest in the study of language structure is: R. L. Politzer, "Linguistics and the Elementary Language Course," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXV, 314-318.

A Languages Laboratory for the Smaller College

For several years the languages laboratory has been accepted as an effective means for providing the necessary drill in language teaching. Numerous articles have been published regarding the design, installation and use of such laboratories. However, most of these reports have dealt with laboratories in larger institutions. The purpose of this paper is to show the feasibility of installing such a laboratory at a smaller liberal arts college.

McNeese State College was faced with the two standard limitations: (1) space and (2) money. Consequently, a considerable amount of planning was necessary in order to get a laboratory set up.

From the standpoint of space, it was apparent from the

first that it would be impossible to convert a classroom into a laboratory unless the design were such that it could still be used as a classroom. In short, the problem was to set up a combination laboratory-classroom.

A room 21 by 27 feet was selected. Along the east wall a well braced plywood shelf 19 inches wide was installed at desk height. Upright plywood partitions were mounted on the shelf so that eight booths were formed. Each booth was 19 by 30 inches, giving each student adequate work space.

Two rows of classroom chairs were removed from the back of the room and a plywood table three by fifteen feet, at desk height, was placed there. A partition two feet in

height separated the table lengthwise into equal parts. Plywood partitions as described above were mounted on the table to form twelve booths.

Thus a total of twenty individual booths were provided, eight being along the wall and twelve being on the table in the rear of the room. This left adequate space in the front of the room for twenty student desks, so that the room could be used to serve the dual role mentioned earlier.

The next problem was to decide as to the type and amount of equipment to be used. In view of space limitations, it appeared that four channels would be adequate. Consequently, four Ekotape reproducers were installed in a locally fabricated console. These reproducers were used without cases, thereby reducing cost and simplifying the making of adjustments or repairs.

Each of the twenty listening posts was connected to each reproducer by standard wiring methods. Two-conductor wire was used, so that no single conductor served as a "common." This eliminated the possibility of cross-channel interference.

An aluminum mounting plate 3.5 by 5 inches was placed on the desk at each listening post. On this was mounted the following: phone plugs, a volume control (used on a 15,000 ohm wirewound potentiometer) and a 5-position selector switch, the first position serving as the on-off switch. Each booth was equipped with a pair of Trimm Professional head phones.

For general laboratory use, a tape recorder, Ekotape, Model 114, was purchased. Later, the need arose for a record player so that tapes could be transcribed from discs. Consequently, a Newcomb Model TR 16-A was added. Tape, reels and a tape splicer were stocked as needed.

The result is that there is now available a classroom-laboratory which serves quite effectively in either capacity. And the total cash outlay for purchase and installation of equipment was slightly less than a thousand dollars.

SAM ADAMS
DOLIVE BENOIT

McNeese State College
Lake Charles, La.

The Special Program for Foreign Language Teachers at the University of Michigan

This summer the University of Michigan completed the third session of its Special Program for Teachers of French and Spanish. Student enrollment and performance were both gratifying. The Program differs somewhat from the workshops being offered at other institutions in that it has as its basis seven course offerings from which students select a program of study suited to their needs. This freedom of choice permits each member of the group to remedy his own special weaknesses or to extend his knowledge or competence to new areas which he has not yet acquired. Courses are offered in basic methodology and recent developments in language pedagogy; in aural-oral skills; in the cultures of the French and Hispanic speaking worlds; and in the contributions of linguistic science to the teaching of foreign languages.

The Program has sought, also, to make central to its activities the language clubs and tables, the French-Spanish House, and the regular conversation groups so that the spoken language might be stressed at all times since a high level of aural-oral fluency is indispensable for modern teaching. The University is fortunate in having one of the best equipped Language Laboratories in the country; the

students are helped to make the fullest use of it.

In a new departure, this last summer the University offered a joint French-Spanish House so that the many teachers of one of these languages who also have a minimal fluency in the other might have an opportunity to practice both. French and Spanish students lived on separate floors and ate at separate tables, but were free to move from one language group to the other at their pleasure; the only requirement was the ban on speaking English.

A lecture series also brought to the campus some of the most distinguished experts in the field: Professor Emile de Sauzé, Dr. Kenneth Mildenerger and others each contributed to the enrichment of the Program.

The Michigan Program has sought to encompass the general field of foreign language teaching. Emphases differ as between college or high school teaching; they shift radically if the elementary school is involved but at all levels the University of Michigan believes that a basic competence in the language, an intimate acquaintance with the culture, and an awareness of modern scientific thinking were appropriate. It has built its Program around these elements.

Dr. Melva Lind Honored

Dr. Melva Lind, former Dean of Women and Professor of Romanic Languages at Miami University, and now at Gustavus Adolphus College, was recently named an Officer d'Académie by the French government.

Dean Lind, Licenciée-es-Lettres from the University of Lyon, ancienne élève du conservatoire de Lyon, and Docteur de l'Université de Paris, is the author of a critical text on Parnassian poetry, a monograph on modern language learning, and many articles and essays. She came to Miami in 1950 from Washington, D.C., where she was the Asso-

ciate in Higher Education on the national headquarters staff of the American Association of University Women, and where her duties included membership on the U. S. Committee for the Exchange of Teachers and broadcasting to French women over the Voice of America. Dr. Lind is a consultant to various agencies, a member of the national committee on the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages sponsored by the American Council on Education, and is an associate pedagogical editor on the *French Review*.

American College Students to Assist in German Schools

Twenty-three American men and women have sailed this fall for Germany where they will assist in English classes in German secondary schools. This is a special project undertaken as part of the Educational Exchange Program of the U. S. Department of State. They will have positions as

teaching assistants, working primarily with pupils between ages 15 and 19. They will participate in workshops in American literature, classes in English conversation, and will take part in extra-curricular activities.

French Assistantships Open to Americans

Opportunities to teach English in the secondary schools of France are open to American graduate students or secondary teachers of French. The awards, which may combine foreign study with the teaching assistant posts, are offered by the French Government through its Ministry of Education. Designed for future teachers of French, these

appointments involve teaching conversational English in secondary schools and teacher training institutions in France. Information about these positions, and those in Germany announced above, may be secured from the Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th Street, New York 21, N. Y.

Smith College Junior Year in Germany

Smith College is planning to establish a Junior Year in Germany next Fall similar to those they have had in France, Switzerland, Spain, and Italy. College sophomores in good standing who have had two years of college German (or their equivalent) may apply for membership in the group. The Junior Year in Germany is intended primarily

for German majors; however, majors in other fields, especially history, music, or art, with adequate preparation in the language, may apply with the approval of the department of their major. Additional information may be secured from the office of the Dean, Smith College.

The Air University Needs Administrators and Teachers

The Air University, the Command responsible for the higher educational system of the air force, is currently developing a campaign to attract educational administrators and teachers in virtually all subject-fields into the Reserve program.

Handling the efforts is a newly created Reserve Affairs Office within the University's Personnel Division. Plans have been prepared creating vacancies for 939 reservist educators and specialists in the Air University's manning

table. These positions will be filled by officers and airmen designated for specific instructional, administrative and supporting tasks within the several branches of the University in the event of a Congressional declaration of war.

Copies of mimeographed brochure giving details about the University's Reserve program will be mailed free to interested men and women in the educational field. Address the Reserve Affairs Office, Headquarters, Air University, Maxwell AFB, Alabama.

The MLA Foreign Language Program

The Cooperative Language Center of the University of Washington

[The following account was written for you, at our request, by Professor Lurline V. Simpson, Director of the Center. We are confident that it contains constructive ideas useful to many recipients of these Bulletins.—W.R.P.]

In the State of Washington at least, FL teachers work in isolation—psychological, geographic, and professional. There is usually only one FL teacher in a community, and his field is, by definition, "foreign," alien to other teachers and to other citizens. When he participates in educational or civic activities, it is in some other capacity, not as a language teacher. Thus, FLs come to be taught in a vacuum, and make no impact on school or community.

FL teachers are isolated professionally. In Washington most teachers of FLs are not "foreign language teachers"; they are specialists in some other subject matter field, to which they add one or two classes of FL. Their professional allegiance is elsewhere. When they attend a professional meeting or a section of their Education Association, or subscribe to a professional publication, it is in their major field. *Hence they are unaffected by current advances in FL instruction.*

Heretofore when FL teachers' associations have acknowledged the presence of these marginal teachers, it has been to "deplore" them, to condemn them, even to try to eliminate them by legislation. But most of these fringe teachers are conscientious and with effective assistance could improve their performance. In any case, they continue to teach—and give their many students the only language instruction most of them will ever receive.

Finally, in the Northwest, even well qualified teachers are victims of geographic isolation. Their successes are unheralded and unappreciated. Lacking the stimulation of communication with others of like interest, they become less creative, more and more perfunctory.

One outgrowth of our awareness of these conditions was the *Northwest Conference of FL Teachers*, inaugurated at the University of Washington in 1950, and now including the four northwest states, part of northern California, and the provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, and Saskatchewan. It is a vital and fruitful association. Nevertheless, attracting as it does teachers already well established in their profession, it has failed to reach the peripheral teacher and the remote teacher; and, while it has incorporated all registrants into work groups where each has the opportunity to formulate and express his own ideas, the pattern of programs and topics still tends to be imposed centrally or from above, instead of emanating from the felt needs of the teachers.

So a naïve plan was conceived by the Romance Language Department of the University of Washington. Its ambitious objective was to reach all teachers of all FLs at any level in any amount. No minimum training was defined and no continuation procedure prescribed. The only assumption was the integrity of the individual teacher in working for personal and professional improvement. A new kind of questionnaire was addressed to such teachers, enlisting their association in a "Mutual Assistance Pact." They were to agree to canvass their communities to discover resources which could contribute to the effectiveness of FL classes (e.g., library, crafts, collections, radio, foreign residents) and ways in which the FL classes could legitimately contribute to normal community life (e.g., participation in United Nations Day, World Culture Week, Pioneer days, etc.). They were invited to share their findings with each other through the Romance Language Department. The University itself, as an ipso facto member of all communities of the state, sought avenues of usefulness to the teachers. The questionnaire listed available services and solicited further suggestions. It offered, for example, to make recordings of the actual lessons the teachers were teaching, so that the less competent could practice pronunciation to a reasonable point of reliability before presenting the material to their classes.

Response soon indicated that the enterprise was outgrowing the legend "Romance Language Department," and should have independent existence. The name "Cooperative Language Center" was carefully chosen, as most descriptive of the spirit implied and the service rendered. To facilitate "cooperation," the "Center" began to radiate Bulletins, which contained helpful ideas from any source, but especially successful devices or experiences which could be adopted or adapted by other teachers. The name "Bulletin," however, had not been judiciously chosen. Not only is there a plethora of bulletins, but the editor realized that it is presumptuous to issue "bulls." Consequently the fourth number became the "CLC Notebook." This modest medium is especially appropriate for brief communications which may not justify an article in a professional review, but which are stimulating and suggestive. Acknowledgment of the sources of all "notes" furnishes additional incentive. (Misunderstanding is possible even among linguists. One recipient, taking to heart the editor's plea for "contributions," sent a dollar!)

Among the proposals received favorably were teachers' regional and summer workshops. Both were provided. The first local workshop met on the University campus, and

attracted teachers from widely separated parts of the state and one from British Columbia. There was no previously planned program, but discussion developed freely from topics presented by the teachers attending. Thus was initiated the principle of teacher-centered programs. Its vitality may be surmised from the fact that the discussion lasted eight hours.

Still intent upon expanding the regional workshops to reach the farthest circumference, the CLC conceived its most characteristic feature, the LINKS. A LINK, by definition, consists of two or more teachers of any FL in any amount at any level who agree to work together and with the CLC for mutual improvement. They share ideas and materials with others through the CLC Notebook. These range from the name of a Spanish cookbook to a complete assembly program with script and music based on the theme of Christmas in Italy. When two or more LINKS issue an invitation, some member of the CLC will meet with them. Discussions then follow the characteristic procedure of concentrating on subjects introduced by the teachers present. Emphasis is constantly directed toward community relations, and community projects have resulted from several of the units. Symbolically the LINK represents the smallest nucleus, with an impulse to join with others until a chain reaction affects every classroom, and ultimately covers the entire state as by a coat of mail, flexible but strong.

The CLC supplements but does not supplant AAT groups and similar associations. In fact, one service rendered is the collection and transmission of dues to the several AAT's. It is currently attempting to persuade school districts to subscribe to professional publications for the benefit of their marginal language teachers.

Full quarter Summer Workshops offering graduate credit to experienced FL teachers have been maintained for three summer sessions. These graduate seminars are devoted to three principal activities: two two-hour discussion periods per week on topics submitted in writing by each student; opportunity to examine and use materials (textbooks, publications, tests, conference reports, MLA Bulletins, films and other audio-visual aids, language laboratory, catalogues, foreign scholarships and exchange opportunities, etc.) and, most important, the development by each registrant of a project which he intends to put into operation in his next year's classes. The "cooperative" spirit of the CLC underlies the workshop, as members share materials and devices as well as the results of their projects. During the 1954 workshop, members attended the UNESCO Citizens' Consultation of the National Interest and Foreign Languages, studied the Parker booklet, and agreed to conduct a similar venture in their home communities. Each member is added to the CLC mailing list, receives the Notebook, and is urged to consider himself a LINK leader in his region, even though it be in New Jersey or Texas.

The Northwest Conference and the Cooperative Language Center came into being independently of all professional associations and activities. Coincidentally, however,

the same ferment in various guises was manifesting itself in numerous areas, and came into sharp focus nationally under the impetus of the sponsorship of the expansion of FL teaching into the elementary grades by the then Commissioner of Education, Earl J. McGrath; and the Modern Language Association's FL Program subsidized by the Rockefeller grant. Since the CLC was already functioning, it lent itself readily to the duty of disseminating the findings of the steering committee of the MLA. Combined with the Northwest Conference Bulletin, it has devoted the last three Notebooks to summarizing the MLA materials for more than one thousand recipients in the northwest states and provinces.

To recapitulate, the distinctive features of the Cooperative Language Center are: inclusion of all teachers of any FL, ancient or modern, at any level and in any amount; the ideal of mutual helpfulness in any practical and, if necessary, elementary respect; concern with community relations; emphasis on decentralized programs initiated by the teachers; facilitating such expressions by organizing LINKS, from the smallest single classroom to large city systems and the University itself; communication among LINKS and between the LINKS and national projects by the Notebook; organization of regional workshops of two or more LINKS; scheduling a full summer graduate workshop at the University; flexibility permitting adjustment to local interests or national programs; realization of the proper place of FLs in the curriculum, in general education, and in society, and consequent maintenance of good relations with administrations and patrons.

The CLC acknowledges some unrealized aspirations as well as immediate plans. It expects to render additional service as a continuation organ when the formal MLA-FL Program is disbanded. Its most ambitious long-range objective is development into an FL Institute, combining the disparate facilities of the University into an integrated and reasonably complete FL experience. Examples of services already available in some degree are: the language laboratory, the language houses, exhibits, audio-visual materials, graduate programs with emphasis on teaching, workshops, public lectures and programs, utilization of a fair share of "channel 9" in television, diagnostic and corrective phonetics, dramatic presentations, and, of course, standard courses in language and literature. The expansion of the institute beyond the limits of the campus has already been realized by supervised study tours in Europe, and one is being planned for Latin America. It is hoped that future workshops may offer practice in conducting FL activities in the campus nursery school, and, at the opposite end of the scale, teaching FL classes for adults, fostering either "hobby" or academic interests.

Meanwhile the CLC disclaims any intention of *anschlussung* the entire FL program of the northwest, admits that its ideals exceed its performance, and continues its humble tasks of serving individual teachers in ways now known or to be made known to it.

Audio-Visual Aids

NEW FILMS

French:

Au Pays des Pygmées. 25 min. Free loan. Shows the daily life of the Pygmies—hunting, food preparation, basket-making and religious dancing. French narration. (French Embassy, Cultural and Information Division, 972 Fifth Ave., N. Y. 21.)

Barrages au Maroc. 20 min. Free loan. Presents a story of the construction of hydroelectric dams in Morocco. French narration. (French Embassy.)

Cher vieux Paris. 40 min. Free loan. Presents a romanticized view of the Bohemian life of the artist who comes to Paris at the beginning of the twentieth century. Shows him at art school, and with his fellow students at the little cafés. French narration. (French Embassy.)

Glory of Paris. 1953, 13 min. Color. Free loan. Tells the story of the wife of a GI who visits Paris and the places in Paris mentioned by her husband in his letters. It includes the Eiffel Tower, art museums, Champs de Elysées, places along the Seine River and the Tuilleries, palace of a monarch of France. (Minneapolis-Moline Co. Box 1050, Minneapolis, Minn.)

Volpone. 97 min. Rental: \$50. Also in 35 min. This famous comedy stars two of France's great actors, Louis Jouvet and Harry Bauer. The scenario was written by Jules Romaines and Stefan Zweig. (Contemporary Films, 13 East 37th St., N. Y. 16.)

Marius, Fanny, and Cesar trilogy. Three feature length films introduced in 35 min. in the U. S. years ago are now available to non-theatrical audiences. *Marius* is an adult story of life in Marseilles, French, bourgeois and life-like. The comedy and the tragedy are inextricable in this story of the girl who produces an illegitimate child. *Fanny*, and *Cesar* are sequels continuing the *Marius* story. (Brandon Films, Inc. 200 W. 57th St., N. Y. 19.)

Italy:

Il Travatore. 101 min. 1950. Rental. Verdi's opera directed by Carmine Gallone. Music performed by the orchestra and chorus of the Roma Opera House. The most tuneful of the immortal Verdi's operas, beautifully sung and played with great scope, action and movement. The English commentary helps make it enjoyable for all audiences. (Brandon Films, Inc., 200 West 57th St. N. Y. 19.)

Prima comunione (Father's Dilemma). 84 min. 1950. Rental. Though written by Cesare Zavattini, responsible for *Shoe Shine* and *Bicycle Thief*, this film moves out of the postwar "neo-realist" tradition of tragedy among the lower classes into comedy among the more prosperous. *Prima comunione* is a study of an ambitious father's confusion as preparations are made for his daughter's First Communion. Gathered together are a host of characters wonderful in themselves and more than wonderful in their ability to heighten the pompous father's futility. (Brandon Films.)

Germany:

Brandon Films (see above) announces the release of the following classics of German cinematography, some of which were filmed some thirty years ago. *Metropolis.* 120 min. *Razzia (The Raid).* 94 min. A realistic drama dealing with the vital problem of black markets in post-war Germany. *Secrets of a Soul.* 72 min. Reputed to be based on one of Freud's actual case histories and was written under the supervision of three leading psychoanalysts of the period who were his pupils. It was the first attempt to illustrate Freud's theories of the subconscious on the screen. *Siegfried.* 80 min. Part I of an attempt to bring the Nibelungen Saga to the screen. Part II is *Kriemhild's Revenge.* *Tartuffe.* 60 min. From the famous Molière play. German version. *The Merry Wives of Windsor.* 93 min. A German version of Shakespeare's play.

ON THE RECORD

Max U. Bildersee, record reviewer for *Educational Screen*, has a succinct but accurate appraisal of nine sets of records for the teaching and learning of Spanish, in the Sept., 1954 issue of *ES*. Some of these records have been already reviewed in this column. The author describes *El camino Real*, *El español al día, Book I*, *La familia Sánchez, Language-Phone Method*, *Living Spanish*, *New World Spanish*, *Spanish Beginning Course*, *Spanish for Conversation*, and *Spanish Self-Taught Through Pictures*.

TAPES

Tape recordings in the FL continue to be used more widely every year. Professor Fernand L. Marty, a leading authority and research worker in this field, has prepared for use at Middlebury and available for teachers of French *Spoken French: A tape-recorded course for teachers who want to use a strictly aural-oral method*. A 220-page manual accompanied with 10 hours of tape recordings (5 reels dual track at 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ "). For details write: The French School, Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont.

LITERARY TAPE RECORDINGS

The Shakespeare Tape Library announces tape recordings of the most important poets of Italy since the days of Dante. Poetry of France from Chenier to Rimbaud; plays, memoirs and other selections. In Spanish it has available interviews, Spanish verse, talks by Pedro Salinas, selections spoken by Jorge Guillén. Write for complete bibliography to: Shakespeare Tape Library, 1818 M. Street NW, Washington 6, D. C.

GUIDE TO FREE FILMS

Educators Guide to Free Films, 14th edition (Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wis-

consin), lists some one hundred more free films dealing with French, German, and Spanish, than last year's edition. This monumental and indispensable source of sponsored films is the standard source for free loan 16 mm. films and should be available in all school libraries. Price \$6.

GERMAN THROUGH PICTURES

This widely-used language through picture series, developed at Harvard by Dr. I. A. Richards, is now available in the third of the modern languages (French, Spanish, and German). This method uses pictures scientifically, developing stick-figure drawings which eliminate extraneous detail to achieve graphic presentation of sentence ideas. It puts the most useful and necessary words and constructions of a new language before the beginner, making it meaningful, more directly than translation can do. As in the other languages, the German series consists of five parts: recordings, filmstrips, Series I, Series II, Pocket Book Through Pictures, and German Workbook. (Educational Services, 1730 Eye St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.)

FILMS IN SPANISH FOR CUBAN TV

Films of the Nations Distributors (62 W. 45th St., N. Y. 36) and Circuito CMQ, Havana, Cuba, have entered into an agreement by which all films of the Nations' short subjects will be made in a Spanish version. Script adaptation and narration is handled by CMQ, mixed recordings and prints are made by FOND. Films will be released in series of 13, the first of which is being completed. Seven series will be made and will be available to all TV stations in Spanish-speaking countries. Films will be available also to educational institutions in Latin America and the U. S. A.

Book Reviews

HARRY H. JOSSELSOHN, *The Russian Word Count and Frequency Analysis of Grammatical Categories of Standard Literary Russian*, Wayne University Press, Detroit, 1953, 274 pages. \$4.00.

The appearance of a Russian word frequency count, as far as we know the first in English for a Slavic tongue, helps to fill one of the greatest lacunae in the modern language field. It means that textbook writers now have at their disposal one of the indispensable tools already available for French, Spanish, German, and Portuguese. The study was made possible by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation. The statistical aspect of the count was performed by Professor Benjamin Epstein, of Wayne University, while the mechanical tabulation techniques were elaborated by Mr. Robert Henigar formerly of the Tabulating Dept. of Wayne University, and Mr. Howard E. Att, of Modern Business Records.

The objective of the word count was to determine the frequency with which words occur in Russian printed material, starting with the second quarter of the nineteenth century and including the modern Soviet period. The 40-page Introduction describes in detail the rigorously scientific techniques followed. The eight-digit code was devised in order to punch Russian words on the IBM punching machines, which are in the Latin alphabet. Ushakov's standard four-volume *Tolkovny Slovar' Russkogo Yazyka* (Moscow, 1935), was used for coding purposes. Sources included only prose material of non-technical content and embraced short stories, novels, periodicals and plays. Chronologically, 25 per cent of the sources are from the nineteenth century, 25 per cent from the period 1900-1918, and 50 per cent from the period 1918 to the present. Seven per cent of the material was drama, 14 per cent literary criticism, 20 per cent journalism and 59 per cent fiction. Half of it was conversational, the other half non-conversational. Journalistic materials dealing with government, economics, domestic and foreign news, and popular description of the exact sciences, were well represented.

The basic content of the book is constituted by six word lists as follows:

- 1) a high frequency list of 204 words based on a count of 150,000 running words as a preliminary to the 1,000,000 words checked;
- 2) the first 500 (in reality 490) next most frequently occurring words;
- 3) the second 500 words;
- 4) the third 500 words (actually 496);
- 5) the fourth 500 words (actually 504);
- 6) the second 3,000 words (actually 3,033).

This comprises a total of 5,230 high-frequency words published, out of a total of 41,115 different words recorded. The

total number of words counted out of the 1,000,000 examined was 506,044. Of practical value is the master list at the end of the book, which includes all entries and which indicates to which of the six lists a given word belongs.

In view of the fact that the size of the total count was much too small to determine the relative frequency of the individual words in the second 3,000 group with sufficient statistical accuracy, a group of 21 Russian teachers was asked to indicate which of these words, in their opinion, a student ought to know either actively or passively after two years of college Russian. Consequently the words selected by a majority of the committee are marked with one asterisk for passive recognition, and two for active mastery.

The words in the respective lists are arranged alphabetically. Symbols placed after each entry indicate the range and frequency, the period and type of literature in which it occurred, and whether the source was conversational or non-conversational material.

The bases for recording the entries appear sound, unless one should wish to quibble about those criteria which admit of real difference of opinion. However, this reviewer takes issue with the separate recording of imperfective and perfective (or durative and punctual) infinitives. It would appear that, expressed in simplest terms (and disregarding the iteratives) Russian and other Slavic languages, basically employ two infinitives and resultant finite forms, or better, an infinitive pair, where most Indo-European languages utilize one. These two components of the infinitive pair are equal in meaning, but one indicates completion or point action, while the other emphasizes duration. Further research is necessary in this important matter to which Prof. Rajko Ruziĉ and others have already contributed.

It is impossible to offer in the compass of this review all the findings of Josselson's study, presented in the Introduction, regarding Russian vocabulary, grammar, and syntax. They deserve examination by all serious Slavists. It is, nevertheless, illuminating to note some of them. Participles and gerunds are four times as frequent in non-conversational material as they are in conversational material. Josselson emphasizes that there are substantial stylistic differences in non-conversational materials in the use of gerunds and participles. Ostrovski uses them most frequently, Simonov is next in order, while Erenburg and Saltykov-Shchedrin employ them most sparingly. With the sole exception of Belinskii, all the authors use the gerund at least twice as often as the participle. Griboedov, for instance, utilizes the gerund four times as much as the participle, while Goncharov uses no gerunds at all.

As regards parts of speech, it is no surprise to learn that nouns occupy first place in both types of material. In conversational material particles occupy first place, but are last in non-conversational material. The use of prepositions

is quite the reverse. They are in last place in conversational but in the second place in non-conversational material. Conjunctions are in the third place in both types of material. Generally speaking, the use of the various parts of speech by the different authors is quite consistent.

Light is shed upon the very important matter of case endings. In the singular, the nominative, accusative, and genitive, are in first, second, and third places respectively in both materials. In conversational material the prepositional is fourth and the instrumental fifth, with the reverse true in non-conversation. The dative is last in both types of materials. In the plural, in conversational material, the order of cases is almost identical, with the nominative and genitive gaining somewhat in representation at the expense of the accusative, while the instrumental is fourth and the prepositional fifth. In nonconversational material, however, the genitive is first, followed closely by the nominative, while the accusative is third. The rest follow roughly the same cases as the singular.

Textbook writers need to study carefully the findings of the study, many of which may surprise them. For instance, as regards the comparison of adjectives, to which beginning texts usually devote considerable attention, Josselson found that in both materials, the positive degree is used over 90 per cent of the time, with the comparative and superlative accounting for less than 10 per cent.

The book is relatively free of errata. Two omissions are to be noted in the master list: *voj* and *dazhe*. On page 18, second column: "... the nominative and accusative gaining somewhat at the expense of the accusative..." should read: "... the nominative and genitive..."

Professor Josselson and all those assisting him deserve praise for their painstaking preparation of this long-awaited work. It is no exaggeration to assert that with its appearance a new epoch in Russian textbook construction may be ushered in. The past decade saw the publication of about a dozen beginning texts and as many readers, varying in quality, but all suffering from the feverish haste with which they were compiled and from the lack of such basic aids as word lists. There remains no excuse now for the failure to produce new beginning manuals and readers with graduated vocabulary material.

As a by product of this study, it is hoped that scholars will avail themselves of the abundant supply of data on Russian grammar, syntax, and usage, available from Dr. Josselson, on cards, and at low cost.

Finally, Slavists need also to undertake the preparation of a Russian idiom count, to complement the present study.

JACOB ORNSTEIN

U. S. Dept. of Agriculture
Graduate School
Washington 25, D. C.

PEI, MARIO A. and FRANK GAYNOR, *A Dictionary of Linguistics*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1954. Pp. 238. \$6.00.

There can be no doubt as to the usefulness of a reference-book containing accurate definitions of linguistic terminology. So far only two general publications have been available: J. Marouzeau's *Lexique de la Terminologie Linguistique* (Paris, 1951) and J. B. Hofmann's and H. Ruben-

bauer's brief *Wörterbuch der grammatischen und metrischen Terminologie* (Heidelberg, 1950); neither of them can be called sufficiently comprehensive, up-to-date, and thorough to serve the reference needs of specialists and laymen. This dictionary is the first publication of its kind in English. It was the intention of the authors to include: (1) "the names, affiliations, and very brief descriptions of the major languages and dialects of the world, both past and present; (2) the traditional grammatical terms; (3) the more frequently used terminology of the field of historical linguistics; (4) that portion of the terminology of modern descriptive linguistics concerning which there is some measure of agreement among its users."

The last type of entry will probably be found particularly useful. It is to the authors' credit that they included such terms as *allophone*, *archiphoneme*, *morphophoneme*, *prosodeme*, *neutralization*, *juncture*, even Hall's *linguistician*, Swadesh's *glottochronology*, Trager's and Smith's *microlinguistics* and *metalinguistics*, Fries's *class word*, Jakobson's *binary principle*, Bloch's *idiolect*; more complete references to the occurrence of the terms would be welcome when the name of a linguist is given who does not appear in the introductory references. Some terms should have been omitted because they are from such isolated sources as, e.g., Bodmer and Hogben's *Loom of Language: directive, pointer words, helper verb, or military influence* (sic!), *narreme*. Other entries are hardly justifiable because they are not established terms and little more than nonce-formations: *base of comparison*, *margin of security*, *levels of articulation*, *holes in the pattern*, *functional and structural theory*.

The comparatively small size of the dictionary may account for the omission of many common terms; e.g. from comparative linguistics: *base* (*light, heavy*), *grade* (*zero, reduced, lengthened*, etc.), *primary ending*, *secondary ending*, *grammatical change*, *mediae, tenues*; from historical or diachronic linguistics: *linguistic borrowing*, *compensatory lengthening*, *occasional spelling*, *dittography*, *samprasaraṇa*, *Schallanalyse*, *phonemic merger* (*coalescence*), *phonemic split* (*bifurcation*). Some surprising omissions are: *monolingual* (*polylingual* is included), *Lithuanian* (*Lettish* is an entry), *phonemicization* (the expendable term *phoneticization* is included), *phonemic*. Not all the main speech organs are included: we find *blade*, *dorsum*, but not *apex* or *tip*, *alveoli*, *vocal cords*, etc. Such articulatory terms as *bilabial*, *alveolar*, *palatal*, *dental*, etc., even *fronted*, are all defined as "consonants" or "sounds" only, never as adjectives; the only exception is *faucaal*.

It is obvious that many definitions will be objected to, and will have to be revised in a future edition. *hyperurbanism* is confused with *spelling-pronunciation* (e.g. often with [ʃ]) instead of being linked to *overcorrection* ("between you and I"). *continuant*, which includes liquids and nasals, is given as a synonym of *spirant* or *fricative*; *uvular* is treated like a synonym of *velar*. *Comparative linguistics* does not merely "disclose and study similarities between related languages" but is concerned with "similarities and correspondences indicating that they originate from a common parent language," as is correctly stated under *linguistic comparison*. The definition of *Hittite* as an "extinct member of the Indo-European family of languages" gives E. H. Sturtevant's name but does not take cognizance of his

Indo-Hittite theory. In the *centum* languages and the *salem* languages not the Indo-European "guttural" [k] sound is represented by [k] or [s] respectively but the Indo-European palatal. Avestan is not a "form of Old Persian."

Among entries dealing with Germanic linguistics we notice a considerable number of errors or inaccuracies. The terms *High German* (Hochdeutsch) and *Upper German* (Oberdeutsch) have been confused. High German is not described as consisting of *Middle German* and *Upper German* but defined as a "German language spoken in the southern part of the German language area," and *Middle German* as "phonologically midway between High and Low German"; *Upper German* has a cross-reference to *High German* in the sense of "High Germanic." A division of *West Germanic* into *High German* and *Low German* is found in A. Schleicher's *Die deutsche Sprache* (1860), but has not appeared for decades in scientific publications and should be removed from the dictionary. To define *Alemannic* as a dialect which "became extinct about 1000 A.D." and *Franconian* as a "group of medieval West Germanic dialects" is erroneous, since both terms apply to modern High German dialects as well, the former, e.g., also to *Schweyztitsch* (sic!), which is wrongly called a "standardized" form of the high German dialects in Switzerland. The statement that Alemannic "with Bavarian and Lombard developed into High German" is hard to comprehend: Bavarian and Alemannic are and have always been the two Upper German subdivisions of the High German dialects; of Lango-bardic we know only that it was probably a High German dialect. It will also become necessary to revise the definitions of *Old Saxon*, which is not linked to its modern form *Platideutsch*, and of *Afrikaans* which is more than just "a Dutch dialect"; *Old Frisian* is not a "Low German language"; *Frisian* is certainly not spoken by "about 3,500,000 persons" (this may be a printer's error for 350,000); *Verner's Law* should not be called a "philological law."

The purpose and the general planning of the dictionary can be commended; it is neither normative nor primarily pedagogical but aims to describe usage to some extent. The authors apparently recognize potential shortcomings of their book, since they earnestly request reviewers in the preface to "call to their attention omissions and inaccuracies and to voice suggestions for desiderata and addenda." It is hoped that they soon will be in a position to make some revisions suggested by this review. The dictionary will considerably gain in stature if the authors consult experts in those fields of linguistics where they do not have first-hand scholarly experience themselves.

HERBERT PENZL

University of Michigan

HARRIS, JULIAN and LÉVÊQUE, ANDRÉ, *Basic Conversational French* (and recordings). Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1953. xx+374 pp. text +lxxiv, vocab. and index. Illustrated. Price \$3.50 (Album of 2 L.P. Vinylite records available at \$7.60 plus 47 cents Fed. Ex. Tax).

Like its predecessor *Conversational French for Beginners*, this text is primarily for beginners at the college level. It

is a welcome adaptation of a popular favorite for those of us who do not have extra time allotted us for laboratory periods but must rather teach our course in three or four periods a week.

The authors present their arrangement of the text's materials along with suggestions to teachers as to its use. All suggestions are based on actual experiences with their text in classes where it has been successfully tried. Upon examination, however, the individual teacher will find that much freedom has still been left to him as to how and when certain matters shall be presented.

The 41 conversational units range in subject matter from simple polite formulas in French to topics of cultural interest. We are glad to see that numbers are begun with the second Conversation and by the seventh students have completed telling time, naming months, days of the week, and expressing dates. Not all of the material for a given Conversation is presented in the formal printed introductory dialogue, but some is left to be developed by the teacher in the exercises accompanying it. Directions for them are stated, as they should be, in French. The authors recommend that they be done orally with books closed to derive the most benefit from them (*Introd.* p. ix).

Much checking of the understanding of expressions is done through stating English sentences to be translated. To some of us this procedure may have objectionable features, but even in those cases, the resourceful teacher can devise ways of revising it to suit his own preferences. From the very first Conversation students are encouraged by appropriate exercises to formulate questions to the teacher and to their classmates. This sort of exercise, too often neglected in elementary French courses, is wisely included in each conversational unit. As to questions and translations based on the introductory dialogue in each lesson, a careful examination of them shows that the authors have included drills which require a true understanding of the material in the lesson rather than continuing on the level of giving back verbatim the wording of the original. Thus, two features of the conversation exercises appear to us most beneficial: making the student ask questions in French and making him think.

It would seem that practically every subject except French grammar is worthy of being discussed in French, since the 25 Grammar Units present all grammatical explanations in English. Many teachers will like this feature of the book and will like even better the simple, clear, and not excessively technical way the principles are stated. At times we find that completeness has been sacrificed for conciseness, as for example the omission of *pas si . . . que* in the discussion of comparisons of adjectives and adverbs (p. 74).

Not only do the Grammar Units explain essential principles used in preceding Conversations, but also they develop them more fully with further details or related new material. Therefore they not only constitute a simple review but they challenge the student to develop more skills as he studies them and as he attempts to solve additional problems in connection with them.

Although writing French is encouraged by *dictées* and written answers to oral questions as early as the fifth Conversation, no special written translation exercise is prescribed until after the 17th Conversation in Grammar

Unit 11. Here, as previously with other kinds of work, the student is furnished an excellent note (p. 112) on the best method for approaching this new sort of exercise, the *thème d'imitation*. Each consists of a short connected paragraph using materials presented in previous Conversations or Grammar Units. These *thèmes* encourage added facility in patterns already learned, putting them in a fresh setting with longer sentences than those of ordinary conversational style. They are a further invitation to the student to think.

A valuable 90-page section of Reference Materials is added. It contains explanations of verb-forms for regular, auxiliary, and irregular verbs; presentation of phonetics, transcriptions in I.P.A. of all 41 Conversations, discussion of numerals and the International Phonetic Alphabet on the Table of Sounds of the French Language; a useful discussion of pronunciation from French spellings as well as problems of stress, length, syllabication, linking, and elision; finally, a page on common units of measurement with English equivalents.

For many teachers the sections on phonetics and pronunciation will have immense appeal. All of the examples used are drawn from sentences presented in the first few Conversations. The authors recommend their use after the fourth Conversation (*Introd.* pp. xi-xii).

However, a most desirable feature of many beginning texts is conspicuous by its absence in this text. Perhaps the authors felt that it would destroy the unity of emphasis they desired in a conversational text to have included a section on favorite folk songs which many of us like to use to impress certain pronunciation, grammatical and cultural patterns on the minds of our students. Again, a clever and industrious teacher can supplement the text with such materials as he sees fit from those he has at his disposal, or he may supplement it with one of the inexpensive collections of *Chansons* already published elsewhere.

The size and shape of *Basic Conversational French* make it easy for the college student to carry and use it along with his other textbooks. The photographs used on the cover and throughout have remarkable eye-appeal and are of cultural importance. Most of the Conversations are accompanied by one or more well-chosen illustrations found grouped at convenient intervals.

Its title is appropriate and wisely stated in English so that college bookstore employees need not become confused by a foreign one. Some teachers like myself would have preferred the treatment of Grammar Units with simple and cognate terms in French, but we could go along with those who like their French grammar in English, since practically every other feature of this text is presented in a most desirable manner and is on the college level, considering that, in addition to memorization, it requires students to think both by translation and in French.

RICHARD J. PAYNE

Southwest Missouri State College.

WEINBERG, BERNARD, *French Poetry of the Renaissance*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1954, pp. xxvi+234. Price \$1.75.

This new volume in the "French Masterworks" series under the general editorship of Professors Peyre, Wads-

worth, and Hoffherr maintains the high standards of excellence which one has come to associate with the editors. Moreover, as a text in its own right this book compels the serious consideration of all who are concerned with the Renaissance period in France, for there has long been a need for a good anthology covering this first great period of French lyric poetry.

Perhaps the chief merit of this slender text is the surprisingly complete coverage of the French Renaissance, the term "French Renaissance" being used as "roughly equivalent to the sixteenth century," which it achieves. Whereas previous texts have been fairly limited to Marot and the Pléiade, this anthology includes representative selections from Marot, Scève, Louise Labé, DuBellay, Ronsard, Baif, Belleau, Tyard, Desportes, DuBartas, D'Aubigné, La Ceppède, Sponde, and Régnier. Thus the principal precursor of French Renaissance poetry, the "école lyonnaise," the Pléiade, and the "queue de Ronsard" are here gathered in a single volume which concludes with Régnier's well-known ninth satire, "A Monsieur Rapin." Selections have been based on the sound principle that each poet's finest verse as well as poems showing each of his major tendencies should be included. All poets are well represented, and from even the minor figures there is material sufficient for one or more hours of class discussion. Shorter lyric forms predominate because of a wise reluctance to tamper with the organic unity of a poem; all selections are complete save for excerpts from DuBartas and D'Aubigné, whose longer works are seldom read in their entirety even at the graduate level.

It is not to be expected that any two persons should agree wholly on the contents of an anthology, but there can certainly be little criticism of the selections in this text. Still it would have been well to include a bit wider range in the Marot section so as to give examples of more of the "menus genres de poésie" which he handled so well and which, as Sainte-Beuve pointed out, formed "la principale ou même l'unique substance" of French poetic tradition in all its purity. There are no "dizaines," no "épigrammes," and no "blasons," yet the "blason" would almost certainly have died of its mediocrity save for the new lustre given it by Marot, who thereby initiated a new and interesting vogue among Renaissance poets. Still more to be regretted is the failure to include one or more of Marot's Psalm translations which reveal so much of the spirit and tension of the 1530's and which are not without their influence on Ronsard's development of the ode. It would have likewise been well to include at least a portion of one of Ronsard's Pindaric odes—perhaps several strophs from the "Ode à Michel de l'Hospital" where the concept of divine inspiration is developed. While it can be argued that these suggested additions do not represent the best efforts of the poets involved, it is the opinion of the present reviewer that an occasional undistinguished passage may be more revealing of a poet's capacity, and lead to a greater understanding and appreciation of his development than reading which is restricted to his better lyrics. No doubt considerations of length have dictated these omissions. On the other hand there is particular merit in the inclusion of such baroque poets as La Ceppède and Jean de Sponde, whose works are not yet obtainable in school texts, for their importance as

well as their spiritual affinity with the metaphysical poets of England has only recently been brought out by the work of Arland, Boase, Ruchon, and others.

To facilitate reading, Professor Weinberg has wisely modernized all texts except in those cases where changing the sixteenth-century orthography would have destroyed rime, rhythm, or the harmonic balance of a line. This together with his very brief notes on Renaissance language and prosody in the Introduction and the solid biographical notices on each poet make the text readily intelligible. In addition he has included a glossary which contains all words not found in Mansion's *Shorter French and English Dictionary* "in the same or in a related meaning." Of particular aid to the advanced student and teacher are the references with each selection to the basic critical text from which it was taken, for example the Guiffrey Marot, Chamard's *DuBel-lay*, and Laumonier's *Ronsard*. Great pains have been taken to find the best possible text as in the use of the Holmes edition of DuBartas which Professor Weinberg checked against the 1603 edition. The notes are clear and are limited to the explanation of classical and historical allusions which are necessary to the student's comprehension of the text. The obscure reference to "le garçon Troyen" in the sonnet of Pontus du Tyard which Professor Weinberg says he has been unable to identify (note 2 p. 154) would seem to be Endymion and, to refer to the moon rather than the evening star. The key passage is to be found in *Le Solitaire Premier*: "Il me souvient avoir leu, que les Carrenes honoroient en reverente devotion la Lune, mais c'étoit souz nom masculin" (Tyard, *Oeuvres*, II, Droz, 1950, p. 22). "Les Carrenes" were the inhabitants of Caria in southwest Asia Minor where Endymion, grandson of the King of Elis (hence "Troyen"), is supposed to have been a hunter on Mount Latmos. It will be remembered that Endymion was loved by Selené, goddess of the moon.

The whole work seems admirably free from error. However, it should be noted that on p. 28 the *Microcosme* of Scève was published not "two years after his death in 1560" but two years before his death in 1564, and on p. 133 "Pugé-Chiquet" should read "Augé-Chiquet."

Certainly the clarity and authority of this text which contains so much that is available only in large critical editions should commend it to all who are concerned with French Renaissance poetry. Finally the fact that it was printed in France accounts for the very reasonable price which should be one more factor in favor of its being widely adopted.

G. R. BISHOP, JR.

Rutgers University

FRAME, DONALD M. (Editor), *Selected Works of Montaigne*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1953, pp. xvi+240. Price \$1.75.

Continuing their serviceable and attractive series of "French Masterworks," under the general direction of Professor Henri Peyre, Harper and Brothers now publish an edition of selections from the works of Montaigne. Professor Frame, the editor of this text, in the same handsome binding as the preceding volumes, has filled a need that was only partially satisfied by the thirty-six pages reproduced from the *Essais* in Cons's excellent *Anthologie littéraire de la*

Renaissance française, which I believe constituted hitherto the largest extract from Montaigne in American college textbooks. The present work, in addition to 209 pages from the *Essais*, reprints three letters (6 pages), extracts from the *Journal de voyage* (5 pages, which I should have preferred to see extended substantially), and several others interesting short bits.

The brief Introduction treats of the universality of Montaigne's appeal, with quotations and allusions ranging from Pascal to W. H. Auden. All the references are placed in one note at the beginning, a system which may save time and money for the printer and the publisher, but which is certainly no service to the reader. Then come several paragraphs on Montaigne's style—its naturalness, disorder, imagery; a single paragraph on his life, completed later by two pages of biographical material, which can only be termed meager for a text of this size; a short summary of the contents of the *Essais*; and suggestions for further reading, to which one may add a volume particularly useful for the student by Pierre Moreau, *Montaigne, l'homme et l'œuvre*, Boivin et Cie., Paris, 1939, in the handy and scholarly collection "Connaissance des livres," formerly "Le Livre de l'Etudiant." An Editor's Note explains the use (adapted from Villey) of the Symbols A, B, C, for the three editions of 1580, 1588, and the "Bordeaux Copy" (1592), the latter of which is used in the present edition as the basic text, with the essential variants of A and B. A most helpful list gives the important ways in which Montaigne's sixteenth-century French differs from modern usage and thus saves the employment of many footnotes, all too frequent as they are in any edition of Montaigne.

The selections consist of the whole or parts of six chapters from Book One, six chapters from Book Two, and five chapters from Book Three. They include most of the well-known show-pieces, such as "De l'oisiveté," "Philosopher c'est apprendre à mourir," "L'Institution des enfants," "Des Cannibales," "Apologie de Raimond Sebond," "Du Démentir," "Du Repentir," etc. I will refrain from suggesting sections that might well have been included (e.g. "Des Livres"), for of all writers Montaigne is the most likely to offer each reader favorite passages that contain a personal, if not an esoteric, appeal. A two-page glossary of rare words has been added to the text, which, it should be added, has been very carefully proof-read.

The notes are quite adequate and succinct, and, on the whole, this edition offers generous extracts provided with all the apparatus necessary for an intelligent comprehension of that work which Gide said (and Professor Frame heartily affirms he "spoke for all"): "Je doute si jamais écriture humaine m'a donné plus d'amusement, de satisfaction et de joie."

RICHARD PARKER

New York University

TIBBITS, CLARK (Editor), *Living Through the Older Years*. University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1951, pp. 193. \$3.00.

On first thought, the above title may seem out of place in this *Journal*. A more sober second thought reminds us that we have been aging since we were born. Whether we

wish to face the facts of ever approaching retirement or hide our heads in the sand, we know that it will come with deadly certainty. In the whole country there will be more of us and more of us will live longer than ever before. It, therefore, behooves us as language teachers, to educate ourselves for a useful and happy old age (perfectly possible states), improve our feelings of security, and by just so much also improve our daily teaching. Present feelings cast a shadow on daily work. Some one has asked, "Since science has given us longer lives, can it give us the sense to prepare for and use them wisely?"

This book and the following two in the trilogy can give a working bases for our education for our later years.

In 1951 "The Charles A. Fisher Memorial Institute" was called to meet in Ann Arbor. It was the first conference ever to be summoned for such a purpose and it did honor to the memory of the man, Charles A. Fisher, who had done so much pioneer thinking and doing to help bring adulthood to a happier and more useful maturity through education.

The volume comprises the eleven lectures of the conference. Each is by a professional worker or a middle-aged or older people "alert enough that they can enjoy the later years if they understand themselves and the aging process and make suitable preparation," as Clark Tibbits says in the Introduction. The range of topics is broad and enlightening.

"The Growing Problem of the Aging" by Ernest W. Burgess (University of Chicago) deals with the causes through which this new national problem has developed.

Dr. Carl V. Weller (University of Michigan) describes the "Biological Aspects of the Aging Process" from his wealth of experience and knowledge.

The biological changes and maintenance of health constitute a "Personal Challenge for the Aging." Dr. Edward J. Stieglitz (physician and gerontologist in Washington, D. C.) describes life as biological changes and lays a solid basis for understanding and meeting them in the maintenance of health, which is every individual's responsibility.

Wilma Donahue has admirably covered the field of "Changes and Processes with Aging." The contribution is one which every adult should read, for the author has brought together the best information. In conclusion she summarizes the characteristics of well-adjusted older persons: "Their life patterns have been found to include plenty of work and a liking for it; strong and varied interests; economic independence and security; good health; many social contacts; hobbies and recreation; living in the present rather than in retrospect; a desire to live life over again; and a predominance of spiritual and mental factors."

In "Mental Hygiene of Old Age," Moses M. Frohlich (University of Michigan) has dealt with the psychological adaptation which a person has to make to the changes "which commonly or well nigh inevitably overtake him." He has confined his paper to the emotional impact and psychological meaning of changes for the aged.

There is a general consensus that oldsters turn more and more to religion. Therefore, Dr. Leroy Waterman's (Emeritus, University of Michigan) contribution has a deserved place in this symposium. His topic is "Religion and the Religious Observance in Old Age."

In "Aging Creatively" George Lawton (consulting

psychologist in New York City) declares that his older patients need to maintain mental and physical well being, and keep self-respect. Among other methods of accomplishing these needs is that of expressing oneself. One of the best means is through imagination. Luckily this faculty holds up well through the later years.

Patricia Rabinovitz (lecturer in Wayne University and University of Michigan School of Social Work) covers well the topics of where older people live and wish to live, living alone, safe and functional homes, adjustment to living with others, selecting a new community, and institutional living.

The problem of aging and employability has become a very real one. Social security provides one of the main means by which the majority of oldsters live. Although the benefits are greater and more people are covered today than when Ewan Clague's (commissioner of U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics) gave this lecture, it is still inadequate unless the aging have some supplementary income (which few do). Most older workers do not wish to retire, not only on account of the remuneration but because of the status which they maintain as a productive worker in society.

Economic security at all ages, but especially for those in the older years, is a point for which all must strive. Charles V. Kidd (specialist in the field of social security) declares that the efficacy of all devices for the betterment of economic security rests ultimately upon the attainment and maintenance of maximum levels of output and employment. It is the task which poses the greatest challenge to our political and economic system. We must learn to educate the populace in a new way.

Harry A. Overstreet (psychologist) gives a "Comprehensive Program for the Personal and Social Adjustment of Old Age." Our educational system gives most of its time and effort to training in the earlier years. Advantages for learning should be provided for adults throughout life.

This book besides giving many outlooks on various important phases of aging, is very readable and challenging. It provides a good beginning for thinking about the older years. If one has already looked into the subject, these lectures cannot but add more knowledge, make for better organization of one's personal problem, and stimulate to further planning and study.

BLANCHE ROUSSEAU-EVANS

Practicing Psychologist
Jackson, Tennessee

KLINCK, GEORGE A., *Aventures*. Toronto, Canada: The Ryerson Press, 1953, pp. 102. Price \$1.25.

Aventures is a reader designed for Grade XI of the Canadian school system, but it could be used with good results in the secondary schools—or even at a slightly lower (or even higher) level—in the schools of this country.

This small, well-printed, and nicely bound text, with a map of France as end-plates, consists of twenty-five literary selections, two cross-word puzzles, a vocabulary, list of synonyms, antonyms, verbs, and adverbs, and a "Tableau Phonétique." The material is well chosen and should make pleasant reading for students of the level for which it is intended.

The sixteen literary selections (pp. 1-75) include several short anecdotes in prose, a number of well-known proverbs, five poems, one of La Fontaine's fables, and two folk songs with music. The prose selections vary in length from a half-page to seven pages. The longest of the poems (Nadaud's *Carcassonne*) occupies a page and a half. Each major selection has a questionnaire and usually other exercises at the bottom of each page. Notes at the bottom of each page explain the major grammatical difficulties. The two "Mots-Croisés" (pp. 76-77) are well chosen, and not too difficult; the solutions are found on page 78. The vocabulary (pp. 79-99) is adequate in every way, and the word-lists (pp. 100-102) should prove useful. The *Hymne National* of Canada precedes the text. A note following the table of contents tells us that recordings of the poems in the text are available.

Aventures is a useful book and a welcome addition to reading texts designed with the secondary student in mind. I am sure that it would be a pleasant and rewarding book to use.

WM. MARION MILLER

Miami University

THE AMERICA OF JOSÉ MARTÍ. Selected writings of José Martí, translated by Juan de Onís, with an introduction by Federico de Onís. 335 pp. New York, The Noonday Press, \$4.50.

"It is amazing and frightening, as though a shroud should suddenly flower in blood, to see the red roofs of the houses reappear in this city of snow." The sight of New York emerging from the now legendary blizzard of '88 was only one of the many scenes of life in these United States described by José Martí for a large Latin-American audience hungering for an insight into the private and public life of the "Colossus of the North." Exiled from his native Cuba for revolutionary activities against the Spanish colonial administration, Martí travelled in Europe and Latin America and spent fifteen years in the United States from 1880 to 1895, organizing the successful revolution which drove Spain from the Western Hemisphere and brought him a hero's death and immortality.

His genius was both literary and political, his published *Complete Works* filling seventy-four volumes with poetry, drama, literary and political essays, orations, manifestos and letters. Seventeen of these volumes are devoted exclusively to *North American Scenes and Famous North Americans*, most of which appeared originally in newspapers

like *La Opinión Nacional* of Caracas and *La Nación* of Buenos Aires.

In this excellent translation of some of his best essays, we are given a refreshing slant on the customs and men of the United States in the '80's. Of General Grant he wrote, "A nation of men has appeared on this earth, and this man, for all his grave errors, helped clear the way." The great Republican orator, Roscoe Conkling, seemed to him, "... a Hercules in frock coat and white gloves, whose bludgeon remained unsuspected by the enemy, until with an enormous rhetorical flourish, he brandished it over his head." The death of benign, saintly Peter Cooper moved him to write, "I was not born in this land, nor did he ever know of me, yet I loved him like a father."

He saw Jesse James as, "... a bandit of noble brow, handsome features and a hand made for death's work." Buffalo Bill's Wild West Show thrilled him and the myriad marvels of Coney Island, "that immense valve of pleasure opened to an immense nation," are described with more than a touch of small-boy wonder.

Martí, the brilliant essayist, felt an ideological kinship with our Emerson, who, "... spent his life beholding the invisible and revealing it." Martí, the gifted poet and recognized precursor of the *Modernista* movement which explored new vistas of poetic expression, was perhaps the first to introduce our virile Whitman to Latin-America, which cheered his earthy humanity. He paints us a Whitman, "... celebrating muscle and boldness ... listening to the song of things ... discovering and proclaiming with delight gigantic fecundities ..."

Martí's long residence here gave him a keen insight into the political, social and economic life of the United States and his writings have had a deep and far-reaching influence upon the attitude of Latin-Americans toward us. His political writings have contributed to the ideals of democracy, human freedoms and intercontinental understanding. In his famous essay, "Our America," he underscores the danger inherent in the lack of understanding: "The scorn of our formidable neighbor, who does not know us, is the greatest danger for our America; and it is imperative that our neighbor know us, and know us soon, so she shall not scorn us."

In his introduction, Federico de Onís has captured the essential theme of Martí's work, "... the search for the originality of Spanish America—which he and all the Spanish Americans who followed him were to call "Our America"—with Spain as its past and unity, and the United States as its common destiny, for better or worse."

RICHARD M. MIKULSKI

Rutgers University

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INGE AICHER-SCHOLL'S
DIE WEISSE ROSE

Edited by **Erika Meyer**

Die weisse Rose is the story of a group of University students who participated in an underground movement against Hitler. The brave efforts of these young people resulted in their arrest and execution. Their courageous story is told in simple, straightforward German by Inge Aicher-Scholl who was related to some of them and a friend of all.

Dr. Meyer has edited this book for students of intermediate German and she has included a moving and informative introduction.

MÉXICO
CIVILIZACIONES Y CULTURAS

By **Luis Leal**

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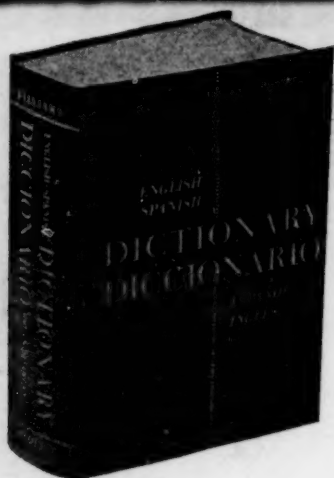
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